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ABSTRACT

The study's purpose was to develop, test, and revise a course on the topic of leadership development in vocational education to be used on an inservice basis by vocational educators at all program levels. A correspondence study method was chosen to meet the need for individualization of instruction while not relying on the individual to structure his own program. Participant data showed participants were more likely to be high school teachers than post-high school educators and more likely to be from non-metropolitan areas. Women were less likely to enroll than men but more likely to complete the course after enrolling. Trade and industrial educators were less likely to enroll in and complete the course than personnel from other subject areas. Most participants felt the course was equal to or better than on-campus courses, met a participant need, was appropriate to correspondence study, and recommended similar courses be developed. The fact that the type of credit granted for the course was not determined at the beginning and the demands of other activities influenced non-respondents and non-completers. Accuracy of the study's generalizations was limited since grant monies were available for materials. The revised course syllabus is included in the nine appendixes. (AG)

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF A CORRESPONDENCE
COURSE ENTITLED: LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT
IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Conducted by
Wayne N. Lockwood, Jr.

Final Report: Contract No. PDT-A3-063

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In cooperation with
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and
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PREFACE

This study was conducted pursuant to an EPDA 553 grant from the U.S. Office of Education and the Division of Vocational and Technical Education, Board of Vocational Education and Rehabilitation for the State of Illinois (Contract No.: PDT - A3 - 063), with Dr. Rupert N. Evans as Principal Investigator.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Orientation to the Problem

Change is an accepted way of life in America, and has always been part of the national heritage (Trachtenberg, 1964). The long-term change in the composition of the labor force is one of the most significant in America's history. Since the early 1950's, white-collar workers have out numbered blue-collar workers, and now account for 47% of the labor force (Wolfbein, 1971: 46). American society is now based on what Drucker (1968: 264) terms a "knowledge economy"; where knowledge is the major cost, investment and product of the largest segment of the labor force. Since knowledge results in as well as from change, the rate at which change occurs in a "knowledge society" can be expected to increase.

Most individuals being educated today can expect to live and work well past the year 2000. The rate at which change is occurring and knowledge is being developed has and will continue to create problems for individuals in society. The success of education in solving some of the problems of individuals will depend on its ability to adapt to the changing educational demands of a dynamic post-industrial society. Individuals should begin viewing education as preparation for adaptation to a changing role in society, rather than preparation for a specific role or job (Willers, 1971: 10).

The idea has often been expressed that education should be continuous throughout life and should be integrated in and serve as a focus for life's activities (Faure, et al., 1972; Lavin, 1972; Simpson, 1972; Wedell, 1970). A "learning society" as described by Faure and others (1972: 183) is one where such an educational philosophy is practiced, and where education includes the traditional prescriptive, structured experiences as well as living experiences.

The living educational experiences would be achieved through the redistribution of teaching in time, space and method with the emphasis on the knowledge and competence an individual possesses, not on the process used to become knowledgeable or competent. The knowledge and competences acquired would include, however, the knowledge of how to and competence to acquire additional learning through the most appropriate methods. There are indications that America may be very close to realizing this most important of the goals of the learning society.

One of the most comprehensive studies of the education activities of the American adult population was conducted by Johnstone and Rivera (1965: 1-2). It indicates that an estimated 25 million adults had been involved in some form of learning during the twelve month period ending in June, 1962, and that close to half of the adult population engages actively in the acquisition of new knowledge after they leave school. It is reported that an estimated 70% of the adult population have something they are interested in learning, even though only 44% indicated a readiness to pursue their interest (Johnstone and Rivera, 1965: 15). Additionally, the segments of the population identified by Johnstone and Rivera (1965: 20) as most likely to participate in adult education, are increasing at a rate greater than that of the population as a whole, and will thus increase the demand for adult education.

Continuing Education for Professionals

The need for lifelong, or continuing education will be most pronounced for individuals in professional occupations, where extensive use is made of knowledge. One of the common characteristics among professional occupations is the recognition given in their codes of ethics, or elsewhere, to education as a lifelong obligation (McGlothlin, 1960). According to Houle (1969: 60),

the need for continuing professional education is the result of "the widening gap between available knowledge and its full utilization in practice". It is Houle's (1969: 56-7) contention that the concept of professionalism cannot survive without continuing education:

While continuing education will not cure all the problems of the professions, without it no cure is possible. The task for this generation is to work, amid all the distractions and complexities of practice, to aid the individual, either alone or in his natural work groups, constantly to refine his sensitivities, to enlarge his conceptions, and to increase his capacity to discharge the responsibilities his work requires as that is seen in the larger contexts of his own personality and the society of which he is a part.

There is wide-spread concern over the lack of participation by professionals in continuing education programs (Knox, 1973: 16). The data from the Johnstone and Rivera study (1965: 75) shows that only about half of all professionals participated in some form of education in the twelve month period ending in June, 1962, and, while no data are presented, it can be assumed that not all of those who were reported to have engaged in further learning were pursuing topics designed to increase their competence as a practitioner. The causes of the failure of professionals to recognize a need for continuing education are not fully understood, but Knox (1972: 9-10) believes that it is often due to the unavailability of such programs, which results in feelings of complacency on the part of practitioners. However, given the opportunity to participate in meaningful continuing education programs, practitioners are generally receptive to and quick to acknowledge the value of such programs.

Each profession has characteristics and needs which are unique, and others which are common to all professions. All professions are characterized by a concern for the education of each of their members throughout their career, with preprofessional preparation as the first step, and other mechanisms

available for the continued development of practitioners (Vollmer and Mills, 1966: 153; Houle, 1969: 54; Evans, 1972). Experience has shown that it is impossible to crowd everything a beginning practitioner needs into his pre-service preparation. Rather it is up to each profession to make sure it is learned later (Houle, 1969: 58-9).

Inservice Education

The terms inservice education and continuing education have similar meanings, with the latter term the broader of the two. Inservice education is generally used to designate education directly related to one's role as a practicing educator, while continuing education is used to describe educational activities of the inservice type in other professions, but is not necessarily restricted only to profession-related educational activities.

Within education, it is widely recognized that a teacher's initial professional preparation is no longer adequate, if indeed it ever has been, for a lifelong career (Crabtree and Hughes, 1969; Houle, 1969; Wolansky, 1969). Inservice education is defined by Hill (1971: 73) as:

...the continuing education of a person who has previously developed the basic competencies required for entry into a position on the teaching team. The purpose of inservice education is to improve the educator's performance within his or her current educational role, a role for which he or she previously has been prepared.

To this Rubin (1971: 36) would add the need for inservice education programs to increase the teacher's options, to provide him with the necessary tools, resources, and support, and to relate directly to problems he encounters in his work.

Inservice education programs generally occur in one of three settings; the organization, the temporary group, or the individual (Know, 1972: 12).

Inservice programs for teachers which occur in the organizational setting generally involve all the members of a given department, school building or school unit, and are designed to meet the common needs of all participating individuals, or the specific needs of the organization unit, but seldom focus on the specific concerns of any one individual, with the possible exception of the program organizer.

Inservice programs taking place in the temporary group setting include graduate, post-graduate and short courses, workshops, conferences, and other programs offered by colleges of education and other sponsoring agencies. Due to the close ties between graduate credit and advancement on salary schedules at all levels of education, a very large part of the inservice efforts by educators is concentrated in programs offering advanced degrees, certificates and graduate credit. While programs of this type can be very stimulating, they seldom center on specific individual needs, and almost always take place in a setting psychologically and physically removed from the environment in which the changed behavior is to occur; i.e., the practitioner's actual classroom or school (Allen, 1971: 113). It is sometimes stated that a graduate class should not enroll persons from a single organization, since this likely will ensure that the needs of the group will determine the course content, rather than allowing the content to be determined by a previously filed, generalized course outline.

The final setting described by Knox (1972: 12) is where an individual "studies on his own or with guidance, but without interaction with other participants." It would seem that the type of individual that is generally thought to represent the educated man - the mature, independent, knowledge seeking, self-evolving individual - would be well served by this pattern of inservice education. It is widely recognized that the trend in education at

all levels is toward this pattern of education for students, in anticipation of developing mature, independent, knowledge seeking, self-evolving individuals, i.e., educated men and women. Inservice programs in the organization or temporary group settings have been supported with resources provided by society and encouraged by salary schedules or promotions in rank or job assignment, whereas inservice programs in the individual setting have received little support at most levels of education, even though such independent study is expected of all members of the profession.

The current status of inservice education is illustrated by Robert N. Bush (1971: 38) as he quotes from testimony given by Dr. Don Davies before the Congressional Sub-Committee on Education (1967):

In-service teacher training is the slum of American education-disadvantaged, poverty-stricken, neglected, psychologically isolated, whittled (sic) with exploitation, and broken promises, and conflict.

The problem with inservice education, as Bush (1971: 39) sees it, is that it started over 50 years ago, at a time when a large number of teachers were not well prepared and, while that has changed, inservice education has not. In fact, as Allen (1971: 109) says, "it is difficult to find anyone in the profession, from teacher to administrator to school of education faculty member, who has a good word to say about in-service courses."

While the major responsibility for inservice education must be accepted by each individual vocational educator, Hill (1971: 80) notes that "administrators and inservice teacher educators have the responsibility for providing resources, the environment and the time to make this continuing education possible." It is assumed that individual educators or administrators have the capability, the desire, and the resources to develop and implement programs of inservice education.

Other problems besetting inservice education as it is currently structured

include; the conflicting philosophies of many persons responsible for program development, the attempt to provide a single approach in meeting the needs of all educators, and the failure to closely tie such programs to improved practice. The "defect" and "growth" philosophies of inservice education are identified by Jackson (1971: 22-6) and, depending on the point-of-view or extent to which the person responsible identifies with either of these two philosophical positions, can have a dramatic effect on program operation.

The "defects" approach is based on some perceived weakness in the practitioner and is designed to "remedy" it. The "defects" philosophy assumes that teachers are in need of remediation or repair, with ignorance of or lack of exposure to the latest innovations in education among the most common of the "defects". As Jackson (1971: 21) says, "They suffer from one of the most feared conditions in our society: premature obsolescence." Usually, the persons suggesting a remedy for this condition have somehow miraculously avoided the malady themselves. Subscribers to this philosophy would have teachers believe that the profession is changing so rapidly that yesterday's theories no longer apply to today's conditions. Obviously the wide-spread emphasis on inservice education for teachers reflects poorly on the education profession if one views it from the defects perspective.

On the other hand, the "growth" point-of-view is based on the idea that education is very complex, so it is impossible for anyone to know everything about it, but it is both possible and important for practitioners to grow in their knowledge of it. Since the single most important source of knowledge about education comes from involvement in the practice of education, then inservice programs that increase the benefit derived from experience contribute to practitioner growth (Jackson; 1971: 28). The "growth" philosophy is in keeping with the principles that are commonly considered to be important

attributes of a profession.

Another problem with current inservice education practices is the recurring attempt that is made to, as Bush (1971: 64) puts it, develop "a global training program that would meet the needs of all teachers - young, old, experienced, inexperienced...." Knox (1972: 10) points out that each professional field has a unique set of characteristics and needs that are, or at least ought to be, reflected in the types of programs that are offered. But beyond this, there seems to be wide-spread agreement that inservice education programs ought to consider the individual needs of practitioners, be relevant to problems of actual practice, and be evaluated on the basis of improved practitioner competence (Allen, 1971: 113; Bush, 1971: 56; Lippitt and Fox, 1971; Rubin, 1971: 263-76).

Inservice education, like society and other areas of education can change, indeed must change. In the words of Ralph Tyler (1971: 15), "In-service training of the future will not be limited to college and university campuses or to school buildings but will be carried on in a variety of settings related to the problems and resources to be dealt with." No longer will such programs be designed to "shape" teachers, rather they will be used to assist, support, and encourage them in their endeavors to improve themselves and their profession.

Inservice Needs in Vocational Education

Although a number of factors have, in combination, resulted in a very high need for inservice education by a large number of vocational educators, the major factor has been the rapid expansion taking place in vocational education. Kay (1970) reports that student enrollments in vocational education went from 4.2 million to 8.0 million, and the number of occupational teachers went from 85 thousand to 167 thousand in the six year period beginning in 1963 and

ending in 1969. Table 1 shows the increased employment of vocational educators, by occupational areas, for the last four years of this period, and indicates that not all areas have been equally effected by the rapid expansion that has taken place.

TABLE 1
NUMBER OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION TEACHERS BY
OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY FOR YEARS 1965 AND 1969¹

Occupational Category	1965	1969	Change	%Change
Agriculture	17,608	12,565	-5,043	-29
Distribution	7,200	9,741	2,541	+35
Health	3,429	8,876	5,447	+159
Home Economics	31,243	31,845	602	+2
Office	15,850	37,923	22,073	+139
Technical	9,213	13,488	4,275	+46
Trades and Industry	39,804	50,592	10,788	+27
Other	2,335	2,087	-248	-11
Total	109,136	166,898	57,762	+53

¹Adapted from U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Report of the Analysis Group: Vocational Education Review Task Force, Unpublished planning document, September, 1970. p.3-15.

While it would appear that the supply has been able to keep pace with the demand, what in fact has occurred is the "lowering" of the certification

requirements for vocational teachers in many states, enabling them to meet increased demands for such personnel.

If the state's pool of potential vocational teachers increases in any one subject area, the real requirements for certification will be raised until they may actually reach the requirements specified in the state plan. Refusal to issue certificates until they are required for employment prevents formation of a pool of certified people who might be less qualified than those who could be certified later (Evans, 1971: 242).

The practice of certifying only those persons who are, or are about to be employed as vocational educators would indicate that demands for pre-service and inservice programs will be, or at least ought to be, very high during periods of rapid expansion. Of the 166,898 vocational educators in the United States in 1969, 58,324 were enrolled in preservice vocational teacher training programs and 52,350 were enrolled in inservice programs (HEW, 1970: 19). The nature of the inservice programs reported is not indicated, but it is probable that most result from enrollments in degree programs at the undergraduate, or graduate levels, or from individuals pursuing additional college credit for salary and/or certification purposes. The wide-spread practice of counting an individual in each class in which he is enrolled would indicate that the 52,350 enrollment figure represents an underestimate of the amount of study per individual and an overestimate of the number of individuals participating in inservice vocational education courses.

There is little question that vocational educators have both economic and professional pressure placed on them to continue formal study throughout their careers. It is only natural that they should be most interested in seeing programs developed that will permit them to satisfy both pressures simultaneously. Crabtree and Hughes (1969) surveyed the inservice needs of Home Economics teachers in Missouri, 80% of whom had their baccalaureate degree and,

understandably, found a great concern that inservice programs offer graduate credit whenever possible. National studies of the educational attainment of vocational educators indicate that over 75% have a baccalaureate degree or higher (Evans and Wiens, 1973; Kay, 1970). Thus, it is likely that most vocational educators, like the participants in the Crabtree and Hughes study (1969), would prefer inservice programs that carry graduate credit.

Developing Inservice Programs for Vocational Education

Vocational education personnel are generally not interchangeable between the areas of occupation specialization that are found in programs of vocational education. For example, data from a study by Kay (1970) indicate that 32% of the distributive education teachers claim office occupations as a second area, while 11% of the office occupations teachers claim distributive education as a second area. A similar overlap exists between technical educators and trade and industrial instructors, with 19% of the technical education instructors claiming trade and industrial education as a second area and 12% of the trade and industrial instructors making the same claim for technical education. Nearly 20% of all vocational teachers (all levels combined) reported additional specialties.

The sharp lines that exist between areas of occupational specialization must be considered in the design of inservice programs for vocational educators. Caution must be used in specifying generalized solutions in a curriculum area composed of the independent units that make up vocational education. It can be argued that the elements of vocational education that ought to unite practitioners are more important than the elements of occupational specialization that seem to make united action difficult, but failure to recognize the import of differences can lead to disappointing results.

Inservice education for vocational educators can be divided into two components; a professional or general component, and a special interest or occupational specialty component. Programs directed toward the general or professional inservice needs of vocational educators have a large number of potential participants, but are generally met with a less than enthusiastic response due to their usually minimal relationship to the most pressing problems of actual practice, and to the fact that the objectives of the persons designing these programs are often very different from those of the persons participating in them (Bohn, 1969). On the other hand, while courses and programs dealing with each of the occupational specialties within vocational education might be met with greater enthusiasm, the limited overlap between the specialty areas automatically reduces the potential enrollees in each such offering, thus making them economically less feasible.

Given the reduced potential audience for courses and programs in specialty areas and the fact that there are many sub-specialties within each of these areas, and considering that the persons charged with the responsibility for developing these inservice offerings are generally more closely attuned to the general needs of the profession than to the specific needs of a given occupational specialty, it is predictable that most programs designed for continuing education are likely to meet only the professional or general component of continuing education, with the individual vocational educator left on his own to upgrade his competency in his occupational specialty.

The responsibility for inservice education programs is usually assumed to be that of the local program administrator, but in all likelihood the greatest amount of inservice education for vocational educators, outside degree programs, is individually planned and voluntarily pursued (Evans, 1971: 254), and is most likely to be concerned with his or her occupational specialty.

Unfortunately, in times of rapid program expansion experienced administrators are in great demand but short supply. This has led Evans (1971: 240) to conclude that "the combination of a shortage of administrators and the recruitment of an untrained teaching staff has created a real crisis in inservice teacher education." It would appear that this crisis has several dimensions, including the development of programs to meet the general and special inservice needs of vocational educators and the preparation of individuals to provide leadership and support for programs of inservice education, as well as the many other programs of vocational education.

Statement of the Problem

The problems related to inservice teacher education in vocational education are in part due to the failure of the profession to identify and train potential leaders at all program levels.

At the local level, vocational education leadership potential is rarely surveyed until an administrative opening has occurred through death, resignation, or expansion of the program. Then the local school officials try to identify an individual who can be immediately promoted and later trained.

Since no one has been selected and trained by design, the person best trained by accident is often selected. (Evans, 1971: 260).

Since the failure to identify and prepare adequate numbers of vocational educators for leadership roles at all program levels in the profession has contributed to many of the current problems confronting vocational educators, it would seem to be an appropriate topic around which to develop an inservice education program. The purpose of this study was to develop, test and revise a course on the topic of leadership development in vocational education to be used on an inservice basis by vocational educators at all program levels.

The many criticisms directed towards inservice education as it is currently structured, have resulted in a recent proposal that individualized inservice education programs be developed. Stillwell (1969) favors an individualized inservice education program that would permit educators to select materials based on their own professional needs, with the pacing of instruction and time spent in reviewing materials determined by the educator. Hill (1971), believes a much broader approach is required for individualized inservice programs to be successful:

Individualized inservice education will be possible only if there is a wide variety of inservice opportunities from which to choose. Short intensive courses, summer school courses, extension courses taught within the school in which the teacher is working, two-way televised courses, independent study which may include action research or a thorough study of the literature should be provided by colleges and universities, often in cooperation with local or state educational agencies and/or industry (Hill, 1971: 82).

A number of educators have advocated involving teachers in the planning and implementation of inservice education programs as a possible means of avoiding many of the ills of current programs (Bush, 1971; Evans, 1971; Lippitt and Fox, 1971; Rubin, 1971). However, Knox (1973: 5) cautions that any program of inservice education "that relies too heavily on the individual to guide his own learning activities is vulnerable to near-sightedness." It is unlikely that individual practitioners will be as familiar with new knowledge and practice as are universities, professional associations and other agencies which sponsor or support inservice activities. It is equally unlikely that these agencies will be aware of the specific problems confronting individual practitioners, thereby creating a need for cooperatively developed programs.

The apparent need for stress on individualization of instruction, while avoiding reliance on each individual structuring his own inservice program,

led to a decision to explore correspondence study as a vehicle for inservice education in leadership. The correspondence study method has among its characteristics many of the features considered desirable in individual inservice education programs. Study by correspondence requires participants to be self-disciplined, organized, systematic, capable of following written directions, capable of applying prior knowledge to a problem situation, and capable of expression in an intelligent, concise, logical manner (Wedemeyer and Childs, 1961: 26-27). Since these are virtues educators seek to instill in students, it seems natural that they should desire programs that permit them to develop and practice these very same intellectual skills. Not all persons studying by correspondence acquire these characteristics, but if they complete a correspondence course they are sure to have made some progress in their development.

Among the advantages cited for correspondence study are the following:

1. It makes education accessible to persons who are geographically isolated.
2. The start, length and pacing of instruction are flexible and usually under the control of the student.
3. It is particularly appropriate for instruction on very specialized topics, for which few students could be assembled for a class.
4. It provides an educational alternative for those who for financial, or other reasons cannot participate in resident programs.
5. Students receive individualized instruction, comparable to the tutorial mode that is usually cited as an ideal model for graduate study.

(Houle, 1965; Bittner and Mallory, 1933).

A variation of the independent study method usually employed in correspondence instruction which would appear promising as a form of inservice

education is the group correspondence study technique. Wedemeyer (1961: 31) provides the following rationale for this technique:

The group study method has great flexibility. It can be a fairly formal method, involving periodic instruction by a visiting teacher in addition to correspondence work, or it can be quite informal, serving a group, only one of whose members is a registered student.

The group study method is designed for small groups of from 6-15 persons. Such groups usually cannot be served by regular classes.

In addition to its economy, the group study method has these other advantages:

1. It is a satisfactory method of providing guidance and instruction to both formal and informal groups.
2. It combines discussion and group experiences as well as opportunities for individual learning.
3. It develops leadership abilities in participants.
4. It places emphasis on individual preparation and study as prelude to group experience and discussion.
5. It takes pressure off of campus instructors and leads to development of off-campus group leaders who are competent to instruct within the group study framework, while working from a correspondence study guide.

Experiments have shown that this method may be an answer -- for mature learners -- to the impasse that some observers think has now been reached in adult education. Group learning may also offer special implications for college level instruction and even for secondary level instruction.

Correspondence study is used in a number of countries for the inservice education of teachers, and has been used in the past for such purposes in the United States (Erdos, 1967). When the "new math" programs were being introduced in the United States during the early sixties, the University of Wisconsin developed a mathematics correspondence course designed to help teachers adjust to the new emphasis without the necessity of interrupting their current assignment to be retrained. In fact, Erdos (1967: 7) indicates that success with

inservice teacher education occurs "when the practical work prescribed for students requires experimental work in their classrooms and reports upon it, so that their correspondence study of theory is integrated with their service as teachers."

For these reasons it was decided to explore the use of both the individual and group correspondence instruction methods in this study.

Definition of Terms

Before proceeding further, it will be helpful to have a common understanding of some of the important terms that have not previously been defined, but are used in the remainder of this study.

1. Participant: Any individual who officially enrolled in the prototype course with the expectation of meeting all the course requirements and receiving the equivalent of 2 semester hours of either graduate or undergraduate credit was considered to be a participant.
2. Field school: A field school was a school where the prototype course materials were tested and/or evaluated by a group of not more than twelve faculty members who met to discuss the course topics. Tape recordings of each of the group meetings were submitted to the investigator for review and comment and were also used in revising the prototype course materials at the end of the testing phase of this study.
3. Field School Participant: Any participant from a field school who officially enrolled in the prototype course on a group basis with the intention of meeting the requirements for receiving university credit will be referred to in this study

as a field school participant.

4. Individual Participant: Any participant, not affiliated with one of the field schools, who enrolled in the prototype course on an individual basis is referred to as an individual participant.
5. Non-starters: Any participant who failed to submit at least one lesson was considered to have been a non-starter.
6. Completer: Any participant who completed all prototype course requirements and was assigned a grade was considered a completer.
7. Completion Rate: The completion rate for the prototype course was computed using the National University Extension Association formula (Mathieson, 1971: 53):

$$\text{Completion Rate} = \frac{\text{completions}}{\text{total enrollments} - \text{non-starts}}$$

Limitations of the Study

The developmental nature of this study, with its absence of experimental controls, reflects the interest of the investigator in assembling and testing a carefully worked out set of course materials as a means of gathering information about the viability of using correspondence study techniques in presenting inservice education to practicing vocational educators and the associated problems of doing so.

Although the participants and schools used in this study were selected from a nationally drawn stratified random sample of vocational educators and vocational schools, they were selected on a non-random basis; i.e., on their individual or, in the case of the field schools, collective interest in

continuing professional development, as expressed by their responses to the questionnaire used in the Evans and Wiens (1973) study. The continuing education topics included in that study, the expressed interest in each topic, and the preferred method of instruction are summarized in Table 2.

All course materials, including the textbook, and course instruction were provided at no cost to the student, other than the postage required to mail lessons to the course instructor. This was an atypical situation, which limits the generalizability of the findings from this study.

A frequently cited advantage of correspondence study is the flexibility given students in starting, pacing and completing course work (Houle, 1965; Erdos, 1967; Bittner and Mallory, 1933). Due to the nature of the grant used to fund this study, it was necessary to set specific, and rather restrictive time limits within which the course could be completed at no cost.

The time span in which the prototype course was to have been completed, early March to mid-June, is typically a very busy time of the school year for vocational educators at all program levels. The completion date was eventually moved back to mid-July to make it possible for a greater number of individuals and schools to complete the course.

Individuals enrolling as participants in the testing of the prototype course did so with the understanding that they would receive two semester hours of undergraduate credit, though they knew that approval had been requested for graduate credit. It was only after the testing phase of this study was nearly completed that a favorable decision was reached regarding the awarding of graduate credit to persons eligible for such credit. Based on evidence from the Evans and Wiens Study indicating that 77% of their respondents held at least a baccalaureate degree and would be eligible for graduate credit, this could be a very significant limitation.

TABLE 2

PERCENTAGE OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATORS INTERESTED IN PARTICIPATING IN COURSES
ON VARIOUS TOPICS OFFERING UNIVERSITY CREDIT, AND THE METHOD THEY PREFER¹

Topic	Interested	Not Interested	Method Preferred By Those Expressing An Interest In A Given Topic		
			On-Campus	Extension	Correspondence
Improvement of instruction; curriculum and methods	65.5	34.5	48.5	39.3	12.2
Communication skill; verbal, written, & community relations	42.9	57.1	43.8	43.0	13.2
School/vocational/technical program administration or supervision	48.3	51.7	46.0	42.6	11.5
Research; understanding and application	33.6	66.4	45.1	37.8	17.1
Recent legislation; provision, use and impact	32.7	67.3	32.4	42.6	25.0
Leadership and interpersonal relations development	41.3	58.7	43.3	44.6	12.1
Guidance and counseling	41.4	58.6	47.0	42.8	10.1
Further development of competence in area of responsibility	63.4	36.6	48.8	40.7	10.5
Other (specify)	3.4	96.6	46.8	42.6	10.6

¹Adapted from data collected by Evans and Wiens (1973).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RESEARCH AND RELATED LITERATURE

The History of Correspondence Study

The earliest known program of correspondence study in the United States dates back to 1728, at which time Caleb Phillipps placed an advertisement in the Boston Gazette offering to provide high quality shorthand instruction by mail (Katz, 1973: 5-7). Until the recent discovery of this advertisement, the Toussaint-Langenscheidt Correspondence School in Europe, founded in 1856, was believed to have been the earliest program of correspondence study (MacKenzie, Christensen, and Rigby, 1968: 24). This school developed the Toussaint-Langenscheidt method of language instruction that was widely accepted by educators outside correspondence study (Bittner and Mallory, 1933: 10). The school remained in operation until the beginning of World War II.

The stimulus for the development of correspondence instruction in this country came, in large measure, from two sources; 1) William Rainey Harper, a leader in the Chautauqua movement and later first president of the University of Chicago, and 2) Thomas J. Foster, publisher of the Shenandoah Herald and founder of the International Correspondence Schools.

The Chautauqua movement was started in 1874 by a Methodist assembly at Lake Chautauqua, New York (Noffsinger, 1926: 108). The purpose of the assembly was to better prepare Sunday school teachers, but it soon developed a complete summer school program, with offerings extending far beyond the religious courses that had characterized its beginnings. As Noffsinger (1926: 109) indicates, "There were many who came to the summer session who did not desire to pursue any specific subject but did want to continue general study under guidance."

Small groups were formed and guided study was extended throughout the year via correspondence. Within two decades, 10,000 local groups were formed, with most located in communities too small to support a Lyceum. Soon thereafter, the reading course that had been offered was expanded into a four year program, with a diploma awarded for completion (Noffsinger, 1926: 110). More than 1/2 million persons enrolled in this program, about one-fifth of whom were able to complete the entire set of readings.

Much of the responsibility for the extension of the Chautauqua institute into the correspondence study field is credited to William Rainey Harper, who became the director of the institute in 1883 (MacKenzie, et al., 1968: 27-8). It was under his direction that speakers were engaged, local Chautauquas were developed and regular circuits were established. His efforts greatly increased the number of individuals exposed to the educational and cultural programs of the Chautauquas. In 1924, the peak year for this program, 10 to 12 thousand communities were visited, with 30 to 40 million persons in attendance at the institutes (Fisher, 1965: 460; Case and Case, 1948: v).

The reputation Harper developed through his work in the Chautauqua programs earned him a position at Yale University and, in 1890, as first president of the University of Chicago (Mathieson, 1971: 2). He was instrumental in introducing the correspondence study method in both institutions, and has been termed the "father" of American correspondence instruction for his pioneering work.

Variations in the administrative and instructional method by which correspondence study courses were offered were investigated very early in its development. One of the first to be tried was the supervised group method. In 1873 the Society to Encourage Study at Home was founded in Boston by Anna Eliot Ticknor, the daughter of a Harvard College professor. (MacKenzie, et al., 1968: 24-5).

The purpose of the Society was to provide correspondence instruction to women who desired to learn. The Society lasted for 24 years, ending with the death of its founder, and reached a peak following of 1,000 in 1882. During its period of operation, more than 7,000 individual students were enrolled in the programs offered by the Society (Bittner and Mallory, 1933: 14). Although the program established by Anna Eliot Ticknor qualified as the first private correspondence school of notable magnitude, it was operated in approximately the same manner as were programs in the public schools, due to her close association with education (MacKenzie, et al., 1968: 38).

The first large scale private venture into correspondence instruction was initiated by Thomas J. Foster, editor of the Shenandoah Herald (which later became the Mining Herald and finally the Colliery Engineer). Foster was concerned about the number of mining accidents that were occurring in Pennsylvania, and concluded they were the result of ignorance of the principles of mining science on the part of supervisory personnel in the mines (MacKenzie and Christensen, 1971: 31-2). The efforts of Foster and others resulted in the Pennsylvania Legislature enacting a law requiring periodic mine inspection, and making it illegal for an individual to be a mine foreman without having passed a state examination. The law was to take effect in 1886, thus providing affected persons time to meet the new standards.

Through his contacts with miners, Foster became aware of the educational problems of persons who would be required to pass the state examinations, but could not afford to leave their jobs to secure the necessary preparation. As a service to them, he began publishing the required information in his newspaper, and included questions that they could answer and send to him for comment. It was through this experience that he discovered a wide-spread need for basic education in mathematics and other subjects among persons submitting responses to

the questions in his newspaper (MacKenzie and Christensen, 1971: 32). Soon, an entire correspondence program was in operation, which has continued to the present and is now known as the International Correspondence Schools (I.C.S.). I.C.S. has a current enrollment of 150,000 students world-wide (MacKenzie and Christensen, 1971: 34).

The first institution of higher education to offer instruction by correspondence was Illinois Wesleyan University, which did so from 1874 to 1910 (Curtis, 1965). Correspondence instruction was used to prepare students for examinations, and could lead to the Ph.D. and all prior degrees. The following statement by Dean Grahman in 1904 summarizes Illinois Wesleyan's 36 years of experience with this method:

The grateful expressions from the many who have felt themselves benefited by the thorough and systematic work required and the words of approval from hosts of others, some of these among the leading educators, convince the faculty and board of the university that these courses meet and satisfy a wide demand for systematic home-study courses, with incentives in the way of proper academic recognition on successful completion (Bittner and Mallory, 1933: 15).

The failure to gain recognition by other colleges and universities for credits and degrees earned through correspondence study, and the inability of its advocates to convince program critics that the correspondence program was educationally equivalent to similar courses and degrees offered for resident study, resulted in a decision to discontinue the program. It is noteworthy that this decision, made in 1906, came shortly after the founding of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (Bittner and Mallory, 1933: 16).

During the 1880's there was an awareness among educators of the growing number of adults who, for any number of reasons were unable to attend college, yet desired instruction at that level (MacKenzie and Christensen, 1971: 39).

Stimulated by the Illinois Wesleyan experiment, by the Chautauqua movement, and encouraged by the results of a mathematics course which had been offered successfully by correspondence, 32 professors from a number of universities banded together in 1883 to establish the Correspondence University, which was based in Ithaca, New York (Mathieson, 1972: 2). Among the institutions involved in this experiment were; Harvard University, Johns Hopkins University, the University of Wisconsin and Cornell University. The intent of this institution was not to grant degrees, but to supplement resident programs. One of the student groups expected to take advantage of the educational opportunities to be offered were college graduates engaged in advanced study (Bittner and Mallory, 1933: 14).

The major strength, as well as weakness, of the Correspondence University was the inter-institutional cooperation that was to have been generated. While such an association of schools held the promise of transfer of credits and certainly enhanced the prestige of the correspondence study method, its loose organization and the failure of participating universities to give it full support caused it to cease operations quickly (Bittner and Mallory, 1933: 15; MacKenzie and Christensen, 1971: 39).

The University of Chicago opened in 1892 with Dr. William Rainey Harper as President and with service as an important part of its mission (MacKenzie, et al., 1968: 28). The correspondence instruction department of the University's Extension Division was the first of its kind, and was to be an important part in the service role envisioned by Dr. Harper for the University. However, higher education has traditionally expressed great concern regarding the effect such a department and program could have on residence programs. The following statement indicates Dr. Harper's awareness of the potential conflict, and

suggests the proper relationship between the two:

The correspondence system would not , if it could, supplant oral instruction, or be regarded as its substitute. There is a field for each which the other cannot fill (MacKenzie and Christensen, 1971: 12-3).

Harper's reassurances were not enough to prevent serious academic opposition to the home study department at the University of Chicago, from within and outside the University (MacKenzie, et al., 1968: 29). This did not, however, prevent other universities from following the University of Chicago's lead.

In 1906, the University of Wisconsin established a correspondence instruction department. It was closely followed by Oregon, Kansas, Minnesota, Nebraska, Texas, Missouri, North Dakota, Colorado, Indiana and Pennsylvania State (Bittner and Mallory, 1933: 267). However, the well-developed systems for correspondence instruction that have resulted from the efforts of these and other institutions have evolved with so little fan-fare inside or outside education that there continues to be a lack of knowledge on the part of the general population regarding this part of the industry (Bittner and Mallory, 1933: 5; Wedemeyer and Childs, 1961: 71; Katz, 1973: 15).

Similarly, little is known about the history, educational contributions and accomplishments of the reputable private schools, other than the information they publish about themselves. Few definitive studies have been made of the private correspondence schools, except to expose questionable practices and fraudulent schools (Mathieson, 1971: 8). The fact they are largely ignored by academic educators and by the U.S. Office of Education has contributed to the resultant information void (Belitsky, 1969: 44). Over 85 percent of all private schools are corporation owned, with several of the largest corporations in America investing in this field of education. The allocation of human and financial resources to the scholarly task of making their accomplishments known within

the education sphere is very rare (Katz, 1973: v.; Belitsky, 1969: 77). The fact that private correspondence schools are run on a strictly business basis has also contributed to the lack of information that surrounds their operation. In fact, given the competitive position in which most private correspondence schools find themselves, some of them feel that the less that is known about their operation the better.

Established suppliers of private home study courses, such as the International Correspondence School in Scranton, Pennsylvania and the American School in Chicago, have been in existence for over 70 years, but are little known to most educators, in spite of the fact that 27 million individuals have enrolled in the home study programs of these and other similar schools (NHSC, ca., 1972).

The extensive involvement of business and industry in the private sector of correspondence study is not surprising, according to Wedell (1970: 35), who offers the following reasons for their initiative:

1. There is a propensity for individuals to invest in education, with the expectation that it will result in greater income or opportunity; an expectation often exploited by unscrupulous practitioners.
2. There is a large potential student body who, as a result of their potential or expectations, are under employed.
3. Government and education have been largely indifferent to the needs of such individuals.

While these comments were intended to describe the situation as it exists in Great Britain, they seem equally appropriate in the United States. Nearly a half century ago Noffsinger (1926) felt that an incontestable need existed for such agencies, no matter how poorly correspondence schools might meet that need.

His perceived need for these institutions was based on the fact that "attendance at school is not practicable for the majority of adults" (Noffsinger, 1926: 86).

Regulation

There is an attitude among many educators that education ought not to be offered for profit. The extent to which this attitude is the result of the traditionally poor economic position occupied by teachers is unknown. However, correspondence study, because of the potential for profits, is often exploited by unscrupulous operators of correspondence schools (Pearse, 1967). When this has occurred, it has only reinforced the notion that education for profit is "evil."

The accounts of Woodyard's (1940) experiences in taking fifteen correspondence courses is delightful and very informative. While on a leave of absence from Columbia Teachers College, she spent over a thousand dollars for courses, and was able to earn two Ph.D. degrees, learn nursing, detective work, mysticism, French, and a number of other subjects; all in the space of one year! As a result of her experiences, Woodyard (1940: 1-19) developed the following conclusions regarding private correspondence school practices:

1. Obtaining information, other than advertisements, prior to enrollment is difficult.
2. It is difficult to get responses to questions that cannot be answered by existing form letters.
3. The chief merit of the lessons is the size of the dosage; usually small.
4. The ability of lesson graders is low.
5. Some correspondence courses are not what they are advertised to be.

6. Most correspondence courses are well prepared and well organized.
7. The cost of correspondence courses to the learner is high compared to the service received, or to alternate methods of instruction or learning.
8. The students' desire to become educated and rich with little work is a weakness of this method rather than the result of some failure on the part of the schools.

In part because of a lack of regulation, many private schools have called themselves "colleges" and "universities," and offer programs leading to every known degree. The following account is of Noffsinger's experience with one of them:

. . . a letter was sent to one of these "universities" saying that the writer had two years of college work, has taught several years in an ungraded country school and now wanted to secure the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. In a few days a reply was received assuring the writer that his case had been "considered before the entire faculty," which had decided that "in the event the writer had ever written a magazine article" it was very probable that he would be "entitled to receive the Ph.D. degree." If he would send the school the "name" of the article, together with \$8.50, the diploma would probably be sent him. The "student body" of these "universities" consists for the most part of clergymen and school teachers who find it a vocational asset to have a scholastic degree. (1926: 28-29).

Abuses such as this, although seldom a problem in the public sector of higher education, cannot help but support the attitude that correspondence study is not only inferior, but also corrupt.

Current evidence indicates that the correspondence method is still being abused, despite the many efforts to eliminate such practices. Byrne (1969) presents a humorous, yet penetrating analysis of the abuses present in one very narrow part of the private correspondence school industry; the correspondence writing schools. A study by Levitan and Zickler (1973) indicates that 18% of the

persons receiving benefits under the G.I. Bill enroll in correspondence courses.

However, they question the effectiveness of the programs:

Follow-up information from GAO on those veterans who failed to complete correspondence training tended to support the speculation that those courses are a waste of the veterans' time and public's money. Many veterans are lured into correspondence programs under false pretenses and fail to learn a useful skill (Levitan and Zickler, 1973: 91).

One other indicator of the current level of fraudulent activity is the number of investigations being conducted by the Chief Postal Inspector in the Post Office Department. Pearse (1967) reports that in 1967, 102 schools were being investigated, compared to 26 schools three years earlier and that, according to an American Council on Education report on "degree mills," in 1959 at least 1,000 unethical correspondence schools were in existence. Katz (1973: 97) indicates that 385 correspondence schools had been investigated in the six years prior to 1973, resulting in 120 criminal indictments for mail fraud. As Cotter, the Chief Postal Inspector during this period says:

. . . in closed cases where fraud was proved and people were convicted, or in borderline cases where schools discontinued operations without convictions, students and parents spent roughly \$22 million for instruction. Much of this money came out of the pockets of people least able to part with it -- and willing to make great financial sacrifices to qualify for better jobs (Katz, 1973: 97).

The regulation of correspondence schools is within state jurisdiction and is made difficult by the uneven quality or lack of legislation from one state to the next, thus making it possible for dishonest schools to continue operations (Marshall, 1970: 11; Pearse, 1967). A recent report by Tempest (1972) indicates that 39 states have legislation regulating proprietary and, in some instances, non-profit correspondence institutions. Of the remaining states, 6 indicated they had no legislation and 5 did not respond.

The private correspondence schools, at least many of the larger or well established schools, have attempted to set standards for the industry through the National Home Study Council (NHSC), which has been in operation since 1926. NHSC is recognized by the United States Office of Education, and its Accrediting Commission serves as the accreditation agency for its members and other schools requesting its services. The accreditation process used by NHSC is similar to that of the regional accreditation agencies which provide this service to high schools, colleges and universities.

Recently the Federal Trade Commission (1972), after several years of study, issued a publication entitled: "Guides for Private Vocational and Home Study Schools." The ten guides in the pamphlet focus on the elimination of the deceptive and unethical practices being used by some correspondence schools. While the guides are advisory in nature, they are interpretive of existing Federal law and could be enforced if violated (FTC, 1972: 1).

The National University Extension Association (NUEA), founded in 1915, is the major professional association in higher education concerned with correspondence instruction, but is not an accrediting body (MacKenzie, et al., 1968: 206). Accreditation of college and university correspondence study programs are handled on a regional basis by one of the six regional associations (Marshall, 1970: 12). It is assumed that the high academic and ethical standards present in the regular offerings of institutions of higher education will be reflected in the quality of their correspondence offerings.

Current Status of Correspondence Instruction

In the period since the 1890's, the greatest amount of developmental activity in correspondence study has occurred outside the sphere of colleges and universities. In fact, as Table 3 indicates, the largest single operator of

correspondence schools is the Federal Government, which has a larger number of enrollments each year (though it has a smaller student body) than all other home study schools combined.

TABLE 3
1970 NATIONAL HOME STUDY COUNCIL SURVEY
OF CORRESPONDENCE EDUCATION ENROLLMENTS¹

Source	Number of Schools Reporting	1970 Student Body	1970 Enroll- ment
Federal and Military	23	2,185,701	1,851,493
Private Home Study Schools	279	2,242,808	1,141,880
Colleges and Universities	53	312,592	234,212
Estimate for Non-responding schools ²	545	277,529	
Total	900	5,018,630	3,227,585

¹ Adapted from NHSC, ca., 1971.

² Estimates are based on previous NHSC experience with the non-responding schools.

Some of the many governmental agencies which use correspondence instruction as a part of their education program, and the year in which they started doing so, are the Internal Revenue Service (1919), the Federal Aviation Agency (1945), the

Selective Service System (1948), the Post Office Department and the Department of Agriculture (1921) (MacKenzie, et al., 1968: 50-51). However, within government the largest suppliers of correspondence instruction are the Armed Forces. All branches of the military, including the Coast Guard, operate correspondence programs, and have done so for a substantial period of time. The Navy began offering correspondence instruction in 1914, the Army and Marine Corps shortly after World War I, the Coast Guard in 1928 and the Air Force in 1947 (MacKenzie, et al., 1968: 54-55). Since the founding of the United States Armed Forces Institute (USAFI) in 1942, the programs offered by each of the branches of service have dealt only with the specific military and technical training objectives required by their particular branch. USAFI provides instruction directed toward the general educational development of military personnel, regardless of branch of service.

USAFI is centered in Madison, Wisconsin and has as its primary mission the development of educational materials and programs "in accord with the highest civilian standards" (Brothers, 1966). USAFI does not award degrees, but does enter into contracts with colleges and universities which enable military personnel to pursue correspondence courses that may count toward a degree. More than 6,000 courses are available from 45 colleges and universities participating in this program (Brothers, 1966).

A similar practice of contracting for instruction is followed in the private sector of the correspondence study market. Over 10,000 agreements between private correspondence schools and business and industry are currently in effect (Marshall, 1970). It is a common practice for industries to use these courses in apprenticeship training, management training and in meeting other basic and vocational education needs. Some of the advantages realized by employers participating in these programs are:

1. The employee does not lose time away from the job; it is convenient and practical when related to job and home responsibilities.
2. It is relatively less expensive to the firm in terms of time and money.
3. The correspondence course is usually specific and concentrated.
4. The emphasis is on learning; it can be applied immediately to the student's work.
5. A great variety of courses is available. (Better Business Bureau; 1959).

Private correspondence schools continue to place a heavy emphasis on job preparation, their forte since 1900, and before.

All but a few member schools of the National Home Study Council teach subjects with a blue collar coloration or are in clerical, sales, applied science, or service fields rather than in purely academic ones (Marshall, 1970).

The most extensive use of correspondence study by any occupational group occurs among craftsmen and foremen, followed by professionals and technical workers, and then managers, officials, and a few clerical workers (Marshall, 1970).

Within higher education, correspondence instruction remains almost entirely focused on the needs of undergraduate students. The current "Guide to Independent Study," published by the National University Extension Association's Independent Study Division, lists 62 agencies and institutions as members (NUEA, 1973).

Table 4 summarizes the number of correspondence courses offered for graduate credit by NUEA numbers. Although an estimated 6,000 correspondence study courses are available through member institutions, less than 200 can be taken for graduate credit. However, studies by Donehower (1968), Harter (1969b) and the University of Washington (1970) indicate that a high percentage of the students enrolled in university correspondence study programs have completed 4 or more years of college. In fact, 50% of the respondents to the study conducted by

TABLE 4
INSTITUTIONS OFFERING GRADUATE CREDIT FOR STUDY BY
CORRESPONDENCE, AND NUMBER OF COURSES OFFERED,
1970-1972¹

Institution	Undergraduate and Graduate Credit	Graduate Credit Only	Totals
Univ. of Iowa	88	9	97
Univ. of Missouri	51	6	57
Univ. of N. Iowa	20	0	20
Univ. of Nebraska	4	2	6
Univ. of Michigan	0	2	2
Univ. of Kansas	2	0	2
Univ. of Oklahoma	0	1	1
St. Univ. of New York	0	1	1
Totals	165	21	186

¹Only members of the National University Extension Association are reported.

Source: A guide to independent study 1970-1972. Washington, D.C.: National University Extension Association.

the University of Washington (1970) were in this category; with half of these individuals (25% of the whole study population) indicating that they were teachers.

Professional and trade associations both supply and consume correspondence instruction (Houle, 1965). In 1965, such groups accounted for about 15,000 enrollees, which illustrates the potential use of this method by professional groups to provide inservice programs of professional growth and advancement to their members (MacKenzie, et al., 1968: 8). Among the groups making use of the correspondence method are the American Institute of Banking, Insurance Institute of America, American Academy of Ophthalmology and Otolaryngology, American Society of Abdominal Surgeons and others (MacKenzie, et al., 1968: 45-46). The American Society of Abdominal Surgeons does not call their program a correspondence course, but they provide critical comments to enrollees and have other program characteristics that are similar to those found in correspondence courses.

Future Directions for Correspondence Instruction

While external degree programs are not at present a major factor in the demand for correspondence instruction in the United States, the current widespread interest in such programs could increase the attention given correspondence instruction in higher education, particularly at the graduate level. Many of the external degree programs being proposed, if implemented, would lead to advanced degrees and would make extensive use of correspondence instruction (Valley, 1971). However, the idea of external degrees is not new. One of the first institutions to develop a major external degree program was the University of London, which started serving as an examining body for external degree students in 1858 (Wedell and Subramanian, 1969). The University of London provides

external degree students with the same examinations given to internal degree students, and upon successful completion of all degree requirements, awards them the University of London Degree. To obtain a University of London degree by correspondence, or by any other method the individual desires, a student is required to enroll in the University of London approximately five years prior to the time he expects to sit for examinations, but must get his instruction elsewhere as the university provides only the examination service.

Even with only a very limited commitment to external degree students, enrollment demands on the University of London threatened the collapse of its program, and led to the establishment of the Open University in 1971 (Eurich and Schwenkmeyer, 1971; Wedell and Subramanian, 1969). The Open University has a royal charter, degree granting power and operates instructional programs through television, radio, correspondence study and 220 local study centers throughout Great Britain. The entrance requirements are that an individual be 21 or older and live in Great Britain. It is anticipated that advanced degrees, including the Ph.D. will be awarded, and:

. . . once it has established a reputation as a university of high quality, its planned nonresidential refresher program may prove attractive to those men and women in mid-career who need to shift or up-grade job abilities, but for whom existing programs are either loaded down with residence requirements or very expensive (Eurich and Schwenkmeyer, 1971: 27).

According to a report by Valley (1971) there were 31 external degree programs in existence in this country at the time his report was prepared. He listed an additional 25 programs that had been suggested or were in various stages of implementation. Of the 31 programs in existence, 10 were at the graduate level, with two offering doctorates. Proposals ranging from a National University to a Management Education-Graduate Degree (proposed by Arthur D. Little) have been discussed and are included in the Valley Report (1971). Among the proposals

that have been initiated since the Valley Report in 1971 is one in Illinois which could result in the implementation of Lincoln State University (State of Illinois Board of Higher Education, 1972). The success of external degree programs will be determined, in large measure, by the acceptance of the credits earned in such programs by institutions other than those awarding the credit. If recognition of externally earned credit is not granted, students pursuing such programs will be unable to change to other modes of instruction without making potentially great sacrifices.

Problems of Teaching and Learning by Correspondence

It is unlikely that any method of instruction currently being used in education is without some associated teaching-learning problems. The following list of items, identified by Wedemeyer (1962: 10-14), represent potential areas of difficulty for learners studying by correspondence:

1. Interest or motivation
2. Readiness to learn
3. Understanding of the structure of the subject
4. Development of intuitive and analytical thinking
5. Self-evaluation of progress

Although other methods of instruction have similar problems, the failure to achieve reasonable solutions within the context of correspondence education places a great burden for learning on correspondence students.

The problems of learning by correspondence, because of their similarities to wide-spread problems of other educational methods, are easily understood by educators within and outside the area of correspondence education. However, most teachers have little or no contact with the problems of teaching through correspondence, and no teacher education programs prepare individuals to teach

in this area (Childs, 1962). A comprehensive list of the problems of teaching by correspondence has been prepared by Childs (1962: 15-21), covering the following five major areas of correspondence study.

1. Methodology.

- a. The learning cycle is difficult to maintain due to the time that elapses between the submission of a lesson and its return with needed feedback.
- b. The person grading the student's lessons may not have prepared the syllabus and may not be in sympathy with it.
- c. Students lack the opportunity to interact with one another and an instructor in the classroom setting.

2. Communication with students.

- a. Most correspondence educators are recruited from other areas of education, are most familiar with oral communications and do not express themselves well in writing.
- b. Written communication can prevent the full expression of one's ideas, simply because of the time required to commit ideas to paper.
- c. The physical separation between the teacher and student makes it difficult to quickly detect and resolve misunderstandings.

3. Teacher preparation.

- a. Most teachers have had little or no experience

with correspondence study, their preparation having been focused on the classroom setting.

- b. Correspondence teachers must learn to use the course syllabus as an important part of the instruction provided students, rather than thinking of the syllabus as a set of reading assignments and some questions to be answered.

4. Adjustment to change.

- a. The cost in time, money and manpower required to prepare or revise a course syllabus makes it difficult to keep materials current, particularly given the rigidity of many of the syllabi in current use.

- b. The best syllabi are prepared by the most competent individuals in a given field of study, who are also in very high demand to do other things as well.

5. Research on correspondence study.

- a. Students learn well by correspondence and often have high praise for their instructors but there is little evidence to show that the procedures used were the most effective way to accomplish the task.
- b. Each individual component of the correspondence method should be investigated, including quality controls, the development of instructional materials, assignments, and the role of the instructor.

Research on Correspondence Study

Many of the questions that have been raised regarding the teaching-learning process in correspondence education have yet to receive satisfactory responses. However, the research literature in this area is growing and should increase the information upon which administrative, curricular and instruction decisions can be based (Childs, 1971). The summary of research on correspondence instruction that follows is grouped according to five important areas of past research concern; 1) student characteristics, 2) completion rates, 3) attitudes toward correspondence study, 4) achievement, and 5) supervised correspondence study.

Student Characteristics

The typical correspondence study student in the United States, if such an individual in fact existed, would be 26 years of age, male and enrolled in a vocational course (Houle, 1965).

Frequently, studies of the correspondence student or method report data on respondent variables such as educational attainment, employment status, age, sex, and a host of other items which when considered collectively provide valuable information upon which administrative and curricular decisions can be based. Anderson and Tippy (1971) and Essex and Anderson (1972) have suggested that future studies of correspondence students might include personality variables and increased biographical data in an effort to better understand some of the pressing problems confronting correspondence study consumers and suppliers.

The characteristics of the typical correspondence study student enrolled in the correspondence courses offered by institutions of higher education differ from those suggested by Houle (1965) in that students at this level are older, more likely to be female and generally pursue academic rather than vocational

courses. For example, a representative study of correspondence student profiles was conducted at the University of Iowa by Davies, Pfeiffer, Sabers and Washinger (1972). The purpose of the study was to develop demographic data that could have implications for the construction of correspondence courses. They found that women under 23 years of age, or over 30, accounted for 51% of the correspondence course enrollments tabulated in the study (N=6000). Approximately 30% of the persons enrolled were graduate students over 23 years of age, 58% of whom were females and 42% males.

The size of the graduate student or graduate population within university correspondence program enrollments is often overlooked, as the following statement illustrates:

The facts are that university correspondence courses serve not so many handicapped students and lame credit seekers as is usually supposed but rather provide opportunity for serious, individual study for a growing number of relatively mature and purposeful students, many of whom, strangely enough, although graduated from college with degrees, yet feel that scholarly years on the campus need not put an end to a college sponsored education (Bittner and Mallory, 1933: 3-4).

Leonard Stein, in the following description of a correspondence course offered by the University of Chicago, illustrates the willingness of professionals to take advantage of continuing education opportunities in whatever form offered:

Principles of Pharmacology (Pharmacology 202) may be taken as an example of a technical course offered at the University of Chicago. It is offered primarily for investigators and laboratory workers in academic and industrial situations in medical sciences and associated fields, who have had no previous formal training in pharmacology. Regular revisions with new findings keep the extensive syllabus up to date. Prerequisites are general biology and elementary organic chemistry. Biochemistry is desirable but not absolutely necessary. This course has reached 30 to 50 people a year, all but a few of them research workers in commercial

pharmaceutical laboratories. Fifteen of the first sixty registrants were Ph.D.'s in chemistry; the median educational level for the whole sixty was a Master's degree (Wedemeyer and Childs, 1961: 21).

Further evidence of the extensive involvement of graduate students in programs of correspondence instruction is provided by the percentage of respondents in the Donehower (1968), Harter (1969b) and University of Washington (1970) studies reporting 4 or more years of college (51%, 35% and 50% respectively). A high percentage of these individuals are teachers. For example, 50% of the individuals in the University of Washington Study (1970) who reported having completed 4 or more years of college were teachers (which represents approximately 25% of the total responses from the institutions reported in the study).

For many students correspondence study is the only formal contact they have with school. Such was the case for 71% of the respondents in the University of Washington (1970: 11) study. However, the student's decision to enroll in correspondence study courses is not forced on him by the unavailability of resident classes according to a survey of close to 13,000 correspondence study students in Great Britain (Wedell and Subramanian, 1969: 109). Only 40% of the respondents to the study lived outside areas of less than 250,000 population.

The reasons most often cited for enrolling in a college or university correspondence study program are the desire to earn college credit or to become or remain certified to teach (Ball, Kim and Olmsted, 1966; Harter, 1969a; Sloan, 1965). Although the number of students who take courses by correspondence is large, the amount of credit actually applied towards degree requirement is quite small. Bittner and Mallory (1933: 146) estimated it would average about 2 credit hours per student nation-wide. The reasons generally offered for not attending regular classes are full-time employment, family responsibility and geographic location (University of Washington, 1970; Wedell, 1970). The reasons given for

enrolling in correspondence courses are essentially the same as those given for withdrawing from them (MacKenzie and Christensen, 1971: 231).

The characteristics described in this section apply only to university level correspondence students. A thorough analysis of the characteristics of the average correspondence student, all levels combined, is included in MacKenzie, et al., (1968: 89). Of note in the findings of MacKenzie, et al., (1968), is the high percentage of men (75%) represented in the correspondence study population and the median number of years of education (12.2 years), which closely approximates the median educational attainment of the labor force (Wolfbein, 1971: 58). Several studies have shown that the completion rate for men studying by correspondence is lower than the rate for women (Donehower, 1968; Ball, et al., 1966).

Completion Rates

For a variety of reasons, a great many persons enroll in correspondence courses they never complete. The formula used by NUEA members institutions (Matheison, 1971: 53) does not include persons who enroll in correspondence courses but fail to submit the first lesson. Reflected in this practice is the fact that a large number of individuals fail to submit even the first lesson in a course.

The characteristically low completion rates among persons enrolling in correspondence study courses is an area of concern for many of the suppliers of this method of instruction. It is difficult for the student or the instructor to know in advance of enrollment the readiness of the student to learn (Wedemeyer, 1962). The high rate of non-starts and non-completers that characterize most correspondence study programs indicates the assumption that everyone who enrolls

in a course is ready must be more closely scrutinized. Support for this position comes from an extensive study of correspondence students in Great Britain, after which Glatter and Wedell (1971: 58) conclude from their evidence that the discontinuance of correspondence courses is not related to the method but to other factors. For example, they found that a substantial proportion of the 20,000 students in their study did not find the absence of classroom contacts a hardship; an idea that is often cited as a cause of low morale among correspondence students and a disadvantage of the method.

A study by Pfeiffer and Sabers (1972), utilizing data collected over a two year period at the University of Iowa, was designed to identify the point(s) where attrition occurs. They found that short courses have the highest completion rates. Over 75% of the individuals in 1 semester hour courses completed them compared to only 23% in 4 semester hour courses. The greatest failure occurs in submitting the first lesson. In 1 semester hour courses, 13% of the students fail to submit the first lesson, compared to over 20% for 2, 3 and 4 semester hour courses. However, when the first lesson is submitted there is a 70%, or better, chance that they will complete 1, 2 or 3 semester hour courses.

A study of State University of New York students who failed to complete independent study courses was conducted by Harter (1969a). Survey forms were sent to over 350 students who had not completed their independent study courses, with 187 being returned, approximately a 52% response rate. He found that 34% of the students had failed to submit the first lesson, and that 75% completed less than 25% of the lessons in the course from which they had withdrawn.

The main reasons cited in the Pfeiffer and Sabers (1972) and Harter (1969a) studies for students not completing correspondence courses are:

1. Slow or late responses from the course instructor.

2. Disparaging marks on graded papers.
3. Lack of self-discipline.
4. Discouragement over the apparent magnitude of the course.
5. The satisfaction of their personal objectives, which might have been to obtain only a little knowledge of the subject, prior to the completion of the course.
6. To avoid receiving a low grade.

There is evidence from several studies which indicates that substantial numbers of individuals enroll in correspondence courses for the purpose of receiving credit (Harter, 1969a; Donehower, 1968; Ball, et al., 1966; Sloan, 1965). Further, Donehower (1968) reports a statistically significant relationship between the reason individuals give for enrolling in a correspondence course and the percentage who actually complete the course. Individuals who identify the desire to earn college credit or an interest in becoming certified to teach as their reason for pursuing correspondence study are more likely to complete their courses than are persons who indicate other reasons for enrollment.

Several approaches to increasing the completion rate among correspondence students were investigated by Sabers, Pfeiffer and Ragsdale (1972). In one of their studies a control group and two treatment groups were formed from 300 students who had been randomly selected from students enrolling in correspondence courses at the University of Iowa. One half of the students selected had taken correspondence courses previously and the other half were new students. The treatment groups were sent either post cards or personal letters after four weeks had elapsed since they last submitted a lesson. A similar study was conducted using students considered to be inactive. Their finding was that letters cause significantly more lessons to be submitted whether students are new to

correspondence study or have had previous correspondence study experience. Personal letters appear to have particularly pronounced effect on increasing the number of lessons submitted by students considered to be inactive ($p < .01$). Additionally, they found a large amount of unsolicited personal correspondence was received from students after the treatment stimuli were sent.

Developing and maintaining the interest and motivation required on the part of correspondence students, if they are to complete their courses, is a difficult task (Wedemeyer, 1962). However, the success or failure of students studying by this method cannot be credited to the relatively limited number of interest building devices available for use in correspondence instruction, but must also take into account the attitudes of all persons involved in this method of education.

Attitudes Toward Correspondence Study

Both educators and the public hold a generally low opinion of the relative educational merits of correspondence study, regardless of research evidence to the contrary (Wedemeyer and Childs, 1961). The attitude that correspondence study is somehow inferior to other forms of education is present in much of the literature in the field. For example, Woodyard (1940: 3), after a year-long intensive study of private correspondence schools makes the following statement:

. . . until I undertook this study, my general attitude toward correspondence schools might be characterized as one of independent indifference. I had always gone to school and thus had no need to seek tuition by mail. I approved heartily of anyone's learning anything he could by any means at any time he had the chance or the need. It seemed to me a blessing, if people could not go to school, that, as a perhaps less desirable option, the school could come to them in correspondence form.

It has been suggested by Wedemeyer and Childs (1961: 71) that the stereotyping of correspondence study as "easy" and as one way to "earn big" is the

result of the wide-spread promotion of private schools, and the complete lack of publicity regarding the quality and availability of college and university programs which are generally much lower in price.

Several studies have been made of the attitudes of faculty members regarding the quality of education being offered by correspondence. One such study by Morishima, Schott and Micek (1968) involved interviews with faculty members at four universities in the state of Washington. Faculty members participating in the study were grouped according to whether they had; 1) never taught by correspondence, 2) had taught by correspondence in the past, and 3) were presently engaged in correspondence teaching. Of the 131 persons interviewed, 82 were in the last category (i.e., were currently teaching correspondence courses). One curious finding from this study was that persons who had never taught by correspondence were not likely to have given thought to its role in the university, yet offered suggestions for its improvement that were not markedly different from the responses of the other two groups (Morishima, et al., 1968: 12). In general, it was the opinion of the faculty members in this study that:

1. Remuneration should be increased due to the time required for grading.
2. Professional recognition, equivalent to that received for classroom teaching should be awarded to correspondence instructors (the usual practice has been to recruit junior faculty members to provide such instruction).
3. Students were more interested in receiving credit than self-improvement (a characteristic shared by many resident students).
4. Student quality was comparable to that of resident students,

with some faculty members feeling that the quality of students in correspondence courses was lower.

5. A five minute interview could tell as much about a student's knowledge as numerous written lessons.
6. Departments should not enter the correspondence area unless they were prepared to go "first class."
7. Correspondence offerings should be regularly evaluated and revised.

In another study of faculty attitudes toward correspondence study, Dahle (1968) found that the general image of the method was good, but there was a residual feeling that it lacked rigor and some questions were raised regarding the quality of instruction. However, over 40% of the participants in the study were eliminated because they were unaware of the Continuing Education Division at the University of Oregon; site of the study. Dahle concluded that information about and contact with the Division was desirable since acceptance was lowest among those who had the least amount of interaction with, or knowledge of, the program.

Student attitudes toward correspondence study have been sampled in numerous studies. In the University of Washington (1970: 11) study, 71% of the students indicated that correspondence study was their only contact with school. Close to 50% of the respondents in this study had 4 or more years of college. Their attitude toward correspondence study was that it lacked motivating characteristics and that contacts between instructors and students were impersonal. However, they did find their courses to be rewarding, beneficial and somewhat superior educationally to those offered in residence. The extended time factor considered to be an important attribute of this method by faculty members in the study by Morishima and others (1968) was considered relatively unimportant by

students.

A survey of the reaction of State University of New York students to their independent study courses was conducted by Harter (1969b) with the following results:

1. They received no encouragement from the campus, with 23% of the students reporting that responses to lessons took 3 or more weeks to be returned.
2. Over 25% of the students did not receive their materials within 4 weeks after enrollment.
3. Instructor comments were rated as of little help by 25% of the students.
4. The course content was viewed favorably by 91% of the students and rated effective by 81%. Of note is the fact that 35% of the respondents in this study had at least 4 years of college.

Similar results with regard to instructor comments are reported by Anderson and Tippy (1971: 13) in a survey of correspondence study students at the University of Illinois. They also found that 35% of the students indicate that they are not being challenged by their courses. Student preferences regarding educational innovations were included as a part of this study and, surprisingly, the establishment of a schedule for completing lesson assignments, to be administered by the correspondence office, was rated lowest in importance.

The Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education conducted a study of the effectiveness of the correspondence study method by sending questionnaires to 2000 former University of Wisconsin students who had completed both resident and correspondence courses (Martin, 1969: 75). Each individual was asked to compare the effectiveness of correspondence courses with instruction

received in residence. In mastery of subject, development of initiative, amount of work per credit hour, theoretical knowledge acquired, practical knowledge acquired, development of originality, development of self-reliance and in power of expression, 77% or more of the practicing engineers responding to the survey rated correspondence study more effective than resident study.

On the other hand, the Correspondence Education Research Project staff made an extensive survey of the attitudes of opinion makers and educators regarding correspondence instruction and report the following experience (MacKenzie, et al., 1968: 101-8):

While educators and opinion makers express somewhat unenthusiastic views of correspondence instruction, some potential users reject the method outright. Claiming either that it is unsuitable to their particular needs or that the method is simply inferior, certain groups refuse to allow any credit for study through correspondence.

Melnick (1969: 13) suggests that the need in correspondence education is for an investigation of which students, under what conditions and in what subject areas do best with a particular method. This type of research would be most helpful in identifying in what ways each of the available methods are superior.

Achievement

Evidence from a number of studies shows that correspondence study students who complete their courses do better than resident students on tests (Glatter, et al., 1971: 48). Childs (1966: 132) makes a similar claim:

. . . it can be said that there are no studies of achievement which show that correspondence study students do less well than do classroom students, a number which show that they do as well, and a number which show they do better. One thing of which we may be certain is that correspondence study does an excellent job of subject matter instruction.

A review and reanalysis of research studies which compare methods of college teaching was performed by Dubin and Taveggia (1968) in an effort to determine which method was most effective as measured by student performance on final examinations. A total of 91 studies was included in their analysis, covering such methods as; lecture, discussion, lecture-discussion, supervised independent study and unsupervised independent study. The results from comparisons between any of the methods of college teaching contained in these studies were converted to signed differences and to standardized differences for the purpose of analysis. For example, within the studies analyzed there were 81 comparisons between face-to-face methods of instruction and supervised independent study methods. In the signed differences test, 40 of the comparisons favored supervised independent study, with the other 41 favoring face-to-face methods (Dubin and Taveggia, 1968: 39). On 74% of the 81 comparisons standardized differences were computed, resulting in a mean difference of 0.0 and a standard deviation of 1.47. Dubin and Taveggia (1968: 35) concluded that data used in their study "demonstrate clearly and unequivocally that there is no measurable difference among truly distinctive methods of college instruction when evaluated by student performance on final examinations."

Interpretations of the Dubin and Taveggia findings with regard to correspondence study should be done with the understanding that few, if any, of the studies classified as supervised or unsupervised independent study involve research on the correspondence method of instruction. However, the data used in their study could be used to make a similar comparison between those studies and the correspondence instruction method. However, research comparing the correspondence instruction method with other methods of college instruction is made difficult due to the problems of controlling for differences in age, intelligence, completion times, and a host of other variables that make inferences

from the results of such investigations risky at best.

Bittner and Mallory (1933: ch. 6) summarize six studies comparing the achievement and intelligence of correspondence students with students who completed all their work in resident classes. They conclude that:

. . . when correspondence students work under the same conditions as students on the campus, they do practically the same type or quality of work or a slightly superior quality. Presumably then, measured by grade points, the ability of correspondence groups is about the same as that of the residence group. But correspondence students make grades that are frequently distinctly higher than residence grades, either their own or those of others. It may be concluded that, while ability of students is about equal, the performance, as rated by instructors, in home study courses is superior to performance in residence courses, and that home study is favorably selective (Bittner and Mallory, 1933: 144).

While most of the results reported in these studies are based on comparisons between the average of all residence grades and the average of all correspondence grades, course by course comparisons yield essentially the same results (Bittner and Mallory, 1933; Larson, 1936; Stevenson, 1939).

The American School, a private home study school specializing in high school level correspondence programs, surveyed the achievement of 1,191 of their 1958-1965 graduates who had attended a university or college. The academic standing of 1,125 students were reported by registrars in 620 institutions. The academic standing of 49% of the American School graduates in this study was considered above average or excellent, 35% were considered average, and only 16% below average or failing. Approximately 25% of this total had completed a baccalaureate degree or higher. It appears from this report that those students who complete their high school program by correspondence and go to college do better than average work, as measured by grade point average (American School, 1965). Further, Wedemeyer and Guilds (1961: 27) report that the

experiences of some high school administrators with a variation of this method have led them to believe that exposure to supervised correspondence study is the best possible preparation for college.

Mathieson (1971) summarizes the findings from studies which compare the achievement of correspondence students with that of students studying by other methods. In general, these studies show no significant difference between the achievement of students studying by correspondence when compared to other methods. When differences do occur, they tend to favor correspondence students. For example, studies by Crump (1928) and Ames (1932) report no significant difference in the achievement of students studying in residence, through extension or by correspondence. The study by Ames (1932) is based on the grades achieved by 868 correspondence study students at the University of Florida and is one of the few studies of this type with a large population. Ziegel (1924), Larson (1929), Schwin (1929), Fieg (1932) and Larson (1936) found that the average grades achieved by correspondence students are higher than the average grades of residence students. However, Ziegel (1924: 225-6) reports that students who combine residence study with either extension or correspondence coursework have higher average grades than do persons who study by any of the three methods alone. A finding from the recent study by Donehower (1968), that age and achievement are not related, is contrary to what Ziegel (1924) found. However, both agree that previous experience in college, correspondence study or other methods of education are positively related to grades. Donehower (1968: 53-5) believes that this relationship could be the result of graduate students enrolling in undergraduate correspondence courses, since none are offered on the graduate level at the University of Nevada.

Supervised Correspondence Study

Supervised and group correspondence study has been in use, at the secondary level, in Nebraska for a number of years (Wedemeyer and Childs, 1961: 27). In fact, some administrators are encouraging students to take at least one course by correspondence to broaden their high school experience and to foster the self-discipline that is required to complete correspondence study. Group study courses by correspondence were offered by the University of Minnesota and Indiana University starting in the late 1920's and early 1930's (Wedemeyer and Childs, 1961: 32-33). The education of the individual in a group has economic and motivational advantages. Students have the opportunity to discuss ideas and participate in oral practice, in addition to the written practice that is traditionally a part of correspondence study.

The results from a study by Cross (1936) indicate that both high ability and low ability students can profit from supervised correspondence study, with the greatest benefit in terms of achievement being derived by the high ability individuals. A small sample of students (N=31) was used by Hana (1940) to compare the achievement of students in a supervised correspondence course with the achievement of students in the same course in a regular classroom. Little difference in achievement was observed between the two methods. Haberman (1940) found an inverse relationship between the time required to complete supervised correspondence courses and the grade received, thus indicating a direct relationship between motivation and achievement.

One of the most carefully formulated studies of supervised correspondence instruction was conducted by Childs (1949). Standardized tests of achievement were administered to supervised correspondence study students in five Nebraska high schools. Although considerable differences appeared between some courses, instructors and schools, the major finding was that supervised correspondence

students are equal to students in regular classrooms. However, when age and I.Q. are matched, the achievement of correspondence students is greater than that of students in regular classes in the same course.

Leadership Development

The development of leadership for vocational education has been made difficult by the lack of a clear notion of what leadership is.

The 1968 General Report of the Advisory Council on Vocational Education expresses the following concern regarding leadership development:

Despite the fact that leadership has been suggested as a means of correcting ills and enhancing innovations, an air of vagueness and uncertainty surrounds both the use of the term and the nature of the activities intended (p. 101).

Usually leadership and administration are closely associated. Programs for leadership development, centered on this concept, usually concentrate on the development of the leadership skills of persons already in administrative positions. In practice, one must be promoted several times in administration before receiving the benefits of most of the leadership training currently being offered. In effect, this means that many of the local vocational programs are being administered by persons who have not received or who are currently receiving leadership preparation (Evans, 1971: 260). Combine this with the fact that many are concurrently receiving their administrative training as well, and it is understandable that a need for leadership development exists. Connors (1972) sees leadership development within the ranks of vocational education as the key to an effective partnership between it and industry. The type of leadership he is concerned in seeing developed would start with the local administration of vocational education and extend downward.

The lack of standardized terminology in describing the major concepts of

leadership is a barrier to understanding. Several identifiable themes recur in the literature on leadership. Following are some of those that must be considered in the planning of a leadership development program:

1. Leadership can be developed.

The notion that leadership can be developed is a basic assumption in any program of leadership development. Cassel (1970) points to the success in religion, government and other institutions as evidence that even mediocre talent can be developed into superior leadership. The need for planned programs of leadership training is identified by Novotney (1967). It is his belief that we must no longer be content to let leaders evolve through the ranks. Leadership must be developed in much the same manner that we develop technical skills. Roberts and others (1970) developed a leadership training program for a number of labor unions in Indiana. They found 85% of their students had held or were holding union offices; many were very influential. There is no indication that the training program resulted in the high percentage of leadership positions held by students, but it is clear that, while many of the participants were leaders prior to entering the class, there was a great concern for self-improvement among them.

2. Leadership is by consent.

Leadership is a social activity dependent on the consent of the group being led. Evidence of the validity of this concept is presented by Phillips (1966). He relates the greater effectiveness of group-centered leaders to their recognition of the potential contribution that can be made by each member of a group. Novotnev (1967), in surveying the area of leadership effectiveness, found leadership success to be very highly related to treating workers as people. Both Cribbin (1972: ch. 1) and Wenrich (1966) state that leadership and administration are not synonymous. Leadership results from the influence one has with a group,

whereas administrative responsibilities are conferred by the organization.

Occupying an administrative position does not confer leadership qualities on the person in that position, but does facilitate the development of leadership. A lack of leadership does not mean automatic failure on the part of an administrator, but does indicate that the individual will be less effective than he might otherwise have been.

3. Leadership is situation dependent.

Leadership is defined by the situation and by the culture in which it is found. The idea that a leader is a person who is able to meet the demands of a situation with ingenuity and skill is expressed by a number of persons.

Williams (1970) believes that leaders should not only react to situations, but attempt to shape situations so that desirable objectives can be met. Cribbin (1972: ch. 4) indicates the importance of culture in placing limits on the nature of leadership that might emerge in a given situation. The leadership style in New York City or New England would probably be very different from that in the deep South in given situations. Leadership styles in Russia or China are certain to be different from those prevailing in the United States.

4. Change requires leadership.

Leadership is required if change is to take place. Nearly all articles reviewed indicated that the group leader is a major agent of change. Douglass (1968) sees social change as the natural result of technological change, moral introspection, fear of present, etc. He proposes and outlines a training program for leaders in the social change area. Logan (1966) believes that leadership implies the initiation of change. His view of the responsibilities of administration for the accomplishment of given objectives within organizational policies and procedures place it in conflict with the change function of leadership. This conflict is greatly reduced when the leader and the administrator are the

same person. Cribbin (1972, ch. 1) views leadership as a single, but very important element of management.

5. Effective leadership is related to achievement.

Leadership is considered effective when results are achieved. Results must be achieved if the leader is to maintain his position. The leader must be able to cope with the unexpected and unpredictable while pushing his plans through to completion (Adult Education Association, 1959; Cribbin, 1972: ch. 1).

6. Leaders have high personal standards.

The Adult Education Association (1959) and Michelon (1970) identify leaders as persons with high standards for themselves and for the group they seek to lead. The establishment of high personal and group standards is the basis for all human progress. Having set high standards, leaders then undertake programs of self-development to meet these personal standards. The self-discipline of leaders is much stricter than that they would expect from others. The need for leaders to get things done through other persons makes it imperative that the leader set an example that can serve as a model for the group. A leader must be willing to serve and support as well as lead.

Cassel (1970) indicates that little concern for leadership preparation has occurred in teacher education, despite the growing need for it. Current efforts in leadership development in education are focused on several patterns. A consortium described by Meade (1972) has been formed by seven universities working together to better prepare superintendents, principals and other educational leaders. The consortium center is at Cambridge, Mass. Participants in this program are to be drawn from minority groups, business, government, education and from other careers. Special training sessions are to be conducted by the Harvard Business School, similar to those presented in business management development. Topics to be covered will include budgeting, fund-raising, labor

relations, etc. Case analysis will be a major part of the program.

A similar approach, but without the benefit of a consortium has been developed by Butts and others (1970) to develop teacher-educators as initiators of change. The new science curricula require teachers who do not teach as they were taught, but adapt their teaching style to the requirements of the new programs as they evolve. It was hypothesized that teacher educators could provide leadership for change provided they; 1) possessed the necessary knowledge, 2) demonstrated the competence needed to initiate change and 3) had a personal commitment to change.

A twenty month, three phase program for the training of vocational education leaders was proposed by Racster and Tolbert (1969). Phase one would center around an understanding of the responsibilities of the vocational administrator, supervisor, etc. and methods for carrying out these responsibilities. Phase two would take place on a campus and would focus on the current problems, philosophies and practices in curriculum and personnel management. The final phase would involve the participants in an internship experience. A program with similar objectives is described by Wenrich (1966) and is in existence in Michigan. An intensive eight-week workshop is followed by a one year internship. Skill development in speaking, listening, writing, sensitivity and conference leading, are emphasized.

Roberts, Brickner and Turner (1970) evaluated the results of a local union leadership training program. The program consisted of a series of courses in labor relations, economics, labor law, human relations and other related areas. Eighty-two percent of the participants felt they would be more effective union leaders as a result of the program (85% had been or were already in leadership positions).

reported by Applebaum and Roberts (1968). The program started in 1959 in Ohio. By 1966-67 there were 15 centers and over 2,100 graduates (1 to 4 year certificates). Ninety-one percent of the participants found the program of value. Dropouts seemed to be less union oriented than those who remained in the program.

A study-viewing approach to leadership training through the use of television is reported by Martin (1967). A series of ten programs, each 30 minutes in length, were prepared on the dynamics of leadership. Attitude formation and increased sensitivity were the major goals of the series. The procedure was to form groups of 6 to 20 people to view and discuss each of the programs. Study guides were prepared as an aid to the more than 400 groups that were formed in over 200 communities. A systematic follow-up was to occur at the completion of the series. Unfortunately, a fire after the second program destroyed the records of the 400 groups and made such a follow-up impossible. The widespread interest in this series would indicate a general desire on the part of the public for programs that will lead to self-development and greater personal understanding.

CHAPTER III

THE STUDY

Development of the Prototype Course

The selection of the topic for the prototype course came after a careful examination of a number of possible topics, several of which would have been as appropriate as the one used. There were a variety of reasons for deciding upon leadership development in vocational education as the focus for the prototype course, three of which stand out.

First, a demand for effective leadership is always present in all areas of society, but has been particularly pronounced in vocational education since the late 1950's (Advisory Council on Vocational Education, 1968: 101). Many references to the need for leadership appear in the literature of the field and in the records of many professional discussions. The following statement by the Advisory Council on Vocational Education (1968: 101) indicates both the need for leaders and one of the problems involved in their development:

Despite the fact that leadership has been suggested as a means of correcting ills and enhancing innovations, an air of vagueness and uncertainty surrounds both the use of the term and the nature of the activities intended. An urgency for leadership persists in the minds of educators, in general, and among vocational educators, in particular.

Even if past efforts had succeeded in creating a pool of trained, potential leaders, and there is little evidence that they have, Evans (1971: 260) suggests that it is important to continue to identify and prepare the best candidates for promotion and leadership.

Second, leadership development does not limit the appeal of the prototype course to a single occupational field within vocational education, or to individuals at a specific program level (although part of the potential strength of

the correspondence study method is in meeting individual needs regardless of subject or level). The concept of leadership used in the prototype course was broadly defined so that the potential audience for the course included all vocational educators.

Third, leadership usually is treated as an abstract theoretical concept and is seldom explored systematically in the context of actual practice. The use of this topic in the prototype course presented the opportunity to investigate the feasibility of using the correspondence study method to link together theory and practice, as has been suggested by Houle (1969). The participant's role in vocational education at the local, state or national level was selected as the environment for applying to practice the leadership development activities and theories in the prototype course.

The following specifications for the prototype course were used to guide the development of the course objectives, instructional materials and activities, and administrative procedures:

1. The course should be designed to meet leadership needs at all levels of vocational education and therefore be useful to all practicing vocational educators, regardless of occupational specialty or program level.
2. The course should be designed to allow a maximum amount of administrative flexibility while at the same time insuring that high standards of academic and instructional quality are maintained. The prototype course, while open to enrollment by both graduate and undergraduate students, should be of graduate level, and of maximum relevance to individual practicing vocational educators.
3. The course should require participants to apply the important

concepts and theories related to leadership development in their roles as vocational educators.

The specifications for the prototype course were then translated into the following general course objectives which describe behavior expected of individuals completing the prototype course:

Upon completing this course the student will be able to...

1. Understand the concept of leadership by...
 - a. defining leadership in terms of its meaning and relationship to his current position.
 - b. analyzing the leadership qualities possessed by other vocational education personnel.
 - c. describing the important conditions in a given situation that influence, and often determine, the patterns of leadership that will be effective.
2. Describe his potential for leadership by...
 - a. identifying his personal strengths and weaknesses.
 - b. outlining a program of personal development that reflects his professional needs.
 - c. identifying a pattern of leadership that would seem to best fit his personal style of working with others.
3. Describe effective leadership strategies for working within organizations by...
 - a. describing the informal and formal lines of authority and communication within an organization (school, community or professional group).
 - b. analyzing his role in the organization.

- c. describing contributions other members of the organization make to the leadership of the organization.
4. Use the leadership concepts developed in the course as a basis for analyzing...
- a. further works in the area of leadership development.
 - b. the quality of his present participation in the leadership of vocational education.
 - c. the progress made in efforts to improve his leadership skills.

Textbook Selection

The selection of the textbook to be used by participants in the prototype course was based on a consideration of the population to be served, the course specifications, the general course objectives, the constraints imposed by the correspondence study method of instruction, and the limitations inherent in funded projects such as this one.

The population to be served by the prototype course encompasses all practitioners whose role in education is totally within or directly related to vocational education. The individuals in the target population differ markedly in age, educational attainment and professional role in vocational education (Evans and Wiens, 1973). The design of the prototype course for the total spectrum of vocational education personnel eliminated from consideration most textbooks in the area of educational leadership development because of their focus on the concerns of only one segment of the population in this study, i.e., the administrators.

The specifications and general objectives developed for the prototype

course indicate that the textbook for the course should treat the theoretical, analytical, practical and organizational aspects of leadership development, in addition to the human relations skills that normally are a large part of such references. The treatment of these topics must be thorough and interesting since students tend to rely on the textbook and course syllabus for their initial exposure to the course (Stein, 1960: 164-5). This is particularly important since an investigation by Pfeiffer and Sabers (1972) of those individuals who fail to complete correspondence courses, indicates that the greatest number drop out prior to completing the first lesson. Additionally, the late starting date for the testing of the prototype course, and the relatively short time span over which it was to occur, made it necessary to provide the members of the target population invited to test the course with as much incentive as possible for enrolling and actively pursuing the course. One such incentive was the offer of a free textbook as partial payment for their participation in this project. The textbooks for the course were purchased with funds provided by the grant being used to conduct this study. Obviously the price of the textbook selected, since this was a major expense in the study, had a great bearing on the extent to which the prototype course could be tested. Fortunately, the price of the book that was selected as the best possible textbook for the course did not require any reduction in the number of individuals that were to be invited to test the course.

Education, vocational education and management textbooks on the topic of leadership were reviewed prior to selecting the textbook for the course. Those in the areas of education and vocational education were designed primarily for supervisors and administrators and would have little appeal to teachers and other vocational personnel whose aspirations for the course were to improve their leadership abilities in their present, non-administrative position. On the other

hand, books in the management area tended to be well founded in theory, but either were far removed from practice or were so slanted to management in the business or industrial sector that it would be difficult to apply the concepts to vocational education.

A book by James J. Cribbin (1972) entitled: Effective Managerial Leadership, was selected as the text for the prototype course. It had been written as a practical guide for managers interested in improving their understanding of this area, made effective use of current research on both leadership and management and appeared to fit well within the other guidelines established for the course.

Although some of the terms in the book are not in common use in education, it was assumed that vocational educators (who presumably have occupational experience in business or industry) would have little difficulty in understanding the terms, and might in fact consider this a strength of the text.

Structuring the Course

The length of the course, credit hour value and number of lessons were influenced by a number of factors. First, since this was essentially a developmental project, designed to provide information regarding the acceptability and potential problems involved in the use of this method in providing for the continuing education needs of practicing vocational educators, it was deemed desirable to have as many persons as possible from within the target population enroll in, complete and evaluate the prototype course. The information gathered from these individuals, and the experience gained in working with the course materials and procedures would then be used as data in determining what revisions would need to be made in either of these areas.

Second, research indicates that correspondence courses with fewer lessons

and fewer credit hours have higher completion rates than do longer courses carrying higher numbers of credit hours (Pfeiffer and Sabers, 1972). The fact that the time span over which the course was to be completed by participants was very limited in comparison to most correspondence courses made a relatively short course particularly desirable.

Third, students taking correspondence courses at the University of Illinois currently pay a fee of \$22.00 per credit hour. Since a fee waiver was one of the incentives to be used to encourage individuals to enroll in and pursue the prototype course, and with the possibility of up to 200 enrollees, it was felt that a shorter course with a lower total fee was more likely to be approved by University authorities, even though all direct costs for material, instruction and other related services were to be borne by a grant. The decision was made to work toward a one-half unit (2 semester hour) course.

A considerable amount of experimenting with possible groupings and sequencing of the course material resulted in the identification of eight lessons, seven of which are based on the course textbook and one of which utilizes selected readings from the literature of vocational education. With the exception of a very long lesson (Four) and one relatively short lesson (Five) all lessons in the course are of about equal length and difficulty. An overview of the topics selected for the eight lessons may be found in Appendix G.

Each lesson in the course is designed to further the participant's understanding of the important concepts related to leadership, and to involve him or her in applying the concepts to practice. Each lesson contains most of the following elements; a cognitive map, a list of special materials required, behavioral objectives, a lesson overview, a reading assignment, developmental exercises, and reading notes. Following is a brief description of the function of each element listed in the order in which they appear in the lessons:

Cognitive Maps: A cognitive map is a pictorial representation of the structure and interrelationships which exist between the elements of a given topic and serves as organization chart for that topic. They have been included as a part of the lesson materials to help participants orient themselves at any point in the course. The cognitive map at the front of the course syllabus (see Appendix G) identifies the major concepts (topics) in the course and their relationship to each other. At the beginning of each lesson is a cognitive map of the important concepts and relationships in that lesson. The maps may be used for both orientation and review.

Special Material: The "special materials" heading in the lesson is used to notify students, prior to beginning a lesson, of some item that will be required in the lesson they are about to start, or in some subsequent lesson, so that it may be procured in advance of the point at which it is needed.

Objectives: Some of the important behaviors expected of participants upon completion of a given lesson are specified in the objectives at the beginning of the lesson as a means of indicating how the lesson material is to be applied.

Overview: The purpose of the overview is to provide participants with a general introduction to the topic to be presented in the lesson. It also includes a brief review of concepts from past lessons that are relevant to the topic to be studied. Material and concepts from sources outside the text are summarized and included in this part of the lesson.

Reading Assignment: The reading assignments are primarily from the textbook. The reading assignments often appear to be short, but each

is packed with material. A list of further readings related to each lesson is appended to the course syllabus, and additional references appear at the end of each chapter in the textbook. It was hoped that, when available, these readings would be sampled to gain a more complete picture of, or new perspectives on the concepts under investigation.

Developmental Exercises: The developmental exercises part of each lesson generally has two components. The first component is used to determine the participant's understanding of the concepts presented in the lesson. The second helps to determine the extent to which a participant is able to observe and translate the concepts into practice. The balance between understanding and practice varies from lesson to lesson, with observation and practice becoming increasingly important as the course progresses. These exercises are sent to the student's instructor for review and comment.

Reading Notes: The reading notes are designed to serve three purposes. First, they help to identify many of the important concepts in each chapter. Second, they are designed to reduce the number of notes participants will need to take as they read. A wide margin to the right of the reading notes allows students to add any comments they feel will make the notes more personally useful. Finally, the most important purpose of the notes is to provide an example of how the concepts of managerial leadership can be applied to vocational education leadership, i.e., to assist in the translation of the theories and examples of practice presented in the textbook into terms

and settings that should be easily identifiable to vocational educators. The reading notes roughly parallel the lecture notes that might be used in presenting each topic to a class of resident students.

Using the basic format just outlined, each lesson was written, reviewed by one or more consultants to the study and revised prior to being tested by participants in the study. In all, five consultants were used to review the lessons and to suggest ways that each could be improved. Consultant Rating Forms (see Appendix B) were developed to assist in the lesson evaluation task, and were distributed to the 5 consultants along with each lesson. Only 3 of the consultants chose to use the forms, with the other 2 providing either a written or verbal response. Consultants were selected on the basis of their interest in or experience with the development and administration of correspondence study courses, leadership development in education or vocational education and their experience in working with vocational educators in other similar projects.

The individuals selected to review the materials did so willingly and with no remuneration but needed to fit this task in with their already full schedules. Therefore, given the short time period between the development of a lesson and its distribution to participants for testing, it was impossible to have every consultant review each lesson prior to its being put into use. However, all consultant reviews were used during the final revision of the course materials.

Participant Recruitment

Invitations (see Appendix A) offering individual vocational educators the

opportunity to participate in the testing of the prototype course were sent to 230 persons who were respondents in the national study of the supply and demand factors operating in vocational education conducted by Evans and Wiens (1973), which made use of a stratified random sample of vocational educators. Invitations were sent to those persons who, according to the data collected by Evans and Wiens (1973), expressed a high interest in continuing professional development, particularly in the area of leadership development. The persons sent an invitation were requested to pass it on to someone else, if they chose not to accept it themselves. Individuals electing to participate in the testing of the prototype course registered as regular correspondence study students and used the administrative services of the University of Illinois Correspondence Courses Office in pursuing their studies.

Eleven schools of the more than two-hundred and thirty which participated in the Evans and Wiens Study (1973) were selected as potential sites to test and evaluate the prototype course on a group basis as an inservice activity. These eleven schools were selected on the basis of the interest indicated in continuing professional education by a large number of their faculty members. Invitations (see Appendix A) explaining the nature of the project and offering the opportunity to form a group of up to twelve persons were sent to the vocational directors at each of the eleven schools. No attempt was made to indicate to the director which faculty members had expressed high interest in continuing professional development, and the responsibility for determining how the group was to be organized and could best carry out the tasks of testing and evaluating the prototype course was left open for the local vocational director or the group to decide.

Testing the Course Materials and Procedures

All costs directly related to the development of the course materials, the instruction provided participants and the evaluation of the course materials and procedures were paid from a grant from the U.S. Office of Education and administered by the State of Illinois Board of Vocational Education and Rehabilitation, Division of Vocational and Technical Education and the Bureau of Educational Research, University of Illinois. Participants in the testing of the prototype course were supplied with a textbook, course syllabus and a blank cassette recording tape. Additionally, the usual enrollment fee, currently \$22.00 per credit hour (\$44.00 total for the prototype course), was waived. The only cost borne by participants, other than the time invested in studying the course materials and in lesson preparation, was for consumable materials and for the postage required to submit lessons (return postage was provided from grant monies).

The administrative procedures for handling persons enrolled in the course on an individual basis and persons enrolled on a group basis were different. Originally it was planned that all testing of the prototype course would be administered in the same manner as other correspondence courses offered by the University of Illinois, using the clerical staff of the Correspondence Courses Office. For persons pursuing the prototype course on an individual basis, this procedure was followed. However, groups studying by correspondence are seldom encountered by the Correspondence Courses Offices, and the design of the study required monitoring of tape recordings of group discussions, so the clerical work involved in administering the prototype course on a group basis in the four field schools was assumed by the Bureau of Educational Research.

The procedure followed by individuals enrolling in correspondence courses at the University of Illinois, once their completed application is received,

begins with the mailing of the course syllabus and some general directions on how the course textbook(s) may be obtained. All lessons and other important instructions related to the course usually are included in the syllabus. It is then up to the student to begin submitting lessons. After the completion of all lessons, the student is eligible to take a proctored final examination on the course. It is the student's responsibility to identify a proctor acceptable to the Correspondence Office and to make the necessary arrangements for taking the examination. The Correspondence Office handles the details involved in getting the examination to the proctor prior to the scheduled examination date. While some courses require more than one proctored examination, most courses taken for credit require at least one.

As lessons submitted by students are received by the Correspondence Office they are stamped in, recorded on the student's record card for the course to which the lesson applies, and are then distributed to the appropriate instructor for marking. When the marked lessons are returned to the Correspondence Office, they are again stamped in, recorded on the student's record card as having been returned and are mailed to the student. For payroll purposes, records are maintained by the Correspondence Courses Office on all lessons and examinations graded by each instructor (approximately 75% of all instructors working with correspondence study students are paid on a per lesson or examination basis). Records also are monitored as a means of preventing unnecessary delays in getting materials returned to students.

The nature of the participation of persons in field schools (groups) in this study was considerably different from that of persons pursuing the prototype course on an individual basis, and created a need for a different set of administrative procedures. Whereas individual participants were to prepare and submit each lesson for comment, participants in the field schools were asked to meet,

discuss, and critique the course materials with regard to their usefulness as a group inservice experience for practicing vocational educators. The number, format, length and content of the meetings were left to the vocational director and group members to decide. It was requested that all group meetings be tape recorded, and the recordings sent to the project staff for review and comment.

The nature of the task to be performed by the field schools was purposefully left vague in the hope that each group would take a different approach to applying the materials to their particular situation, and thus point out effective ways in which the materials could be used in a variety of group situations, as well as identifying the weaknesses of the materials when used in this manner.

Each individual who enrolled in the prototype course for credit, including field school participants, was required to complete one of the final examination options described briefly below to receive credit for the course (see Appendix G for a more complete description of the options). Individuals qualified to receive graduate credit were required to complete either option 1 or 2, while undergraduate credit could be earned by completing any one of the first three options. Option 4 was open to individuals who were interested only in a certificate of completion in the course.

Option 1: Complete an objective one hour proctored final examination on the course concepts and submit a term paper, not to exceed eight type-written double spaced pages. The term paper must be on a topic related to the course concepts and approved by the instructor.

Option 2: Complete a two hour, proctored final examination covering the course concepts. The examination will be in essay form and will contain questions similar to those in the assignments in each lesson.

Option 3: Complete a term paper, similar to the one described in option 1, not to exceed twelve pages in length.

Option 4: Complete either the examination or the term paper described in option 1.

Quality Assurance and Course Evaluation Procedures

A major drawback to the expanded use of the correspondence study method of instruction in higher education, particularly at the graduate level, is the attitude that instruction provided via this method is of lower quality than that provided in resident programs (Dahle, 1968; Morishima, et al., 1968). The procedures used in the development, administration and evaluation of the prototype course have been subjected to high standards in an effort to demonstrate that instruction of the very highest quality can be provided, at least on the topic selected for the prototype course, through correspondence study on either an individual or group basis. The following quality assurance procedures were built into this study:

1. Instructional quality:

- a. All aspects of the course were directly supervised by a person who held full graduate faculty status at the University of Illinois.
- b. The course materials were written, reviewed and revised at least twice prior to being sent to participants in this study. The reviewers included four academic employees of the University, two of whom held graduate faculty status, and one administrative staff member from the Correspondence Courses Office of the Division of University Extension. Consultants were selected for expertise in areas that contributed to the development of the

- course materials and instructional procedures.
- c. Visits were made to two proprietary schools in Chicago who offer correspondence study courses to observe their course materials and administrative procedures.
 - d. Conferences, interviews and informal discussions were held with executives, representatives and developers of correspondence study programs.
 - e. Individuals with special expertise related to individual lessons in the course were consulted in the development of those lessons.
 - f. All materials were reviewed for quality in the light of experiences with members of the target population, and revised as needed.
 - g. All aspects of the prototype course, including the quality of instruction, were evaluated by individuals who completed the course.
 - h. Short questionnaires were sent to each of the participants enrolled in the prototype course who failed to submit any lessons, or who did not pursue the course to completion, to gather information on potential problems with the material or method.
 - i. A limited number (8) of individuals who were invited to participate in the testing of the prototype course, but declined to do so, were interviewed by telephone.

2. Review of work by participants:

- a. The grading of participants' work was done separately by a person with graduate standing and an EPDA fellow who had taught in universities for seven years. The work of each individual completing the prototype course was reviewed in an evaluation conference.
- b. Accurate records were maintained on all work submitted by participants.
- c. Participant work was checked for plagiarism. The major check was the experience of the instructional team administering the course, which was supplemented by maintaining random samples of the participants' work on file in the project office, particularly in cases where individuals actively participating in the course were in close proximity to one another. The proctored final examination was an added check against such violations.
- d. Grades in the course were determined on the basis of eight individual written reports and a course examination. Participants in the field schools were not required to submit individual reports, but were evaluated on their contributions to group meetings and on the final examination in the course. Individuals desiring graduate credit were required to complete one of the following options:
 - (1) Complete a supervised two hour essay examination, with the proctor to be approved by the

project staff.

- (2) Submit a term paper and take a one hour supervised objective examination, with the proctor to be approved by project staff.

3. Review of Different Instructional Strategies

- a. Two approaches to the use of the materials were investigated:

- (1) 66 individuals from 32 states and the District of Columbia were enrolled in the course as regular correspondence study students.
- (2) Four field schools, with approximately 10 individuals per school participated in the tryout of the course materials in the group setting. Twenty-two of these individuals, from two of the schools, enrolled for credit. Individuals in these schools met in groups to discuss each lesson. Tape recordings of these meetings were sent to the project staff for review and comment. Members of the project staff were available for telephone discussion during each of the group meetings held at the field school. On-site visits were made to three of the four schools by members of the project staff. (West Anchorage, Alaska was the only site not visited).

- b. Completion rates, progress rates, and the quality of student work resulting from the different instructional strategies was compared.

- c. The group approach also provided useful information for the improvement of instructional materials over and above that provided by student comments accumulated through the individualized approach.

4. External project evaluation:

- a. A member of the Bureau of Educational Research staff not affiliated with this project, working under the supervision of Dr. Robert E. Stake, conducted an extensive evaluation of the entire project (Boynton, 1973).
- b. A graduate class (VOTEC 489) in the administration of vocational and technical education reviewed and critiqued the materials being developed in this project. Their responses were helpful in comparing the quality of the course materials to instruction generally presented as a part of resident courses.

Procedures For Data Analysis

The analysis of data resulting from this study is focused on four main areas: 1) participant characteristics, 2) participant performance, 3) participant evaluation of the course and instructor, and 4) descriptive information related to the course materials and procedures.

Four groups were used in the investigation of the characteristics of participants in this study; 1) the respondents in the national study of vocational educators conducted by Evans and Wiens (1973), 2) persons who were invited to enroll in the prototype course, but did not do so, 3) persons who enrolled in the prototype course, but did not complete it, and 4) persons who

completed the prototype course. The last group was separated into two sub-groups according to whether persons completing the course did so on an individual or group basis. Chi-square was used to compare each group with all other groups on the following variables selected from the data collected by Evans and Wiens (1973); age, sex, educational attainment, occupational area, major job responsibilities, interest in continuing education, anticipated formal education, degrees in progress, length of time in teaching, professional memberships and offices held, self-evaluation of professional activities, ethnic background, community size, status of children at home, method of teacher preparation and method of vocational preparation.

Performance data on participants is reported by frequencies and as percentages and summarizes the rate at which lessons and the course are completed by individuals participating in the two instructional methods, as well as final examination and course grades for these two groups. The t statistic was used to test for significant differences in the final examination grades assigned to individuals participating in the two instructional methods. Similar analyses were performed on the evaluation data that was supplied by individuals who completed the course. Two separate evaluation instruments were used for this purpose, the Illinois Correspondence Courses Evaluation Questionnaire and the VOTEC x349 Evaluation Questionnaire. Both questionnaires were given to participants along with the final examination, and generally returned with it. Evaluation data was collected from persons enrolled in the course, but who withdrew prior to completion.

Descriptive data related to the course materials and procedures were available from a variety of sources, and were reviewed and analyzed by this investigator and by two research assistants, before being used as a basis for revising the materials and procedures used in the prototype course. A

more complete description of the sources of these data is presented in the following section.

Revision of Course Materials and Administrative Procedures

The developmental and testing phases of this project were carefully monitored for information that would help to strengthen the materials developed for the prototype course and improve the administrative procedures through which instruction was provided participants. Input to the revision process came from a variety of sources, among which the most important were:

1. Lessons submitted by individuals
2. Tapes of meetings held in the field schools
3. Final examination performance data
4. An external evaluation of the project
5. On-site visits to three field schools
6. Course evaluation data submitted by persons completing the course
7. Follow-up data on persons enrolled in, but not completing the course
8. Unsolicited comments, letters and other materials from participants in the course

All aspects of the prototype course were reviewed and evaluated in light of the above data, and a complete analysis of the data collected during the developmental and testing phases was performed prior to making course or procedural revisions. The revised materials and procedures were then submitted to several of the course consultants, who had participated in the developmental phase of this study for review and comment.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

As previously stated, the purpose of this study was to develop, test and revise a correspondence course on the topic of leadership development in vocational education. Data on completion rates, achievement and other factors related to the prototype course were collected from individuals in each of the identifiable groups or subgroups used in this study. Most of the individuals participating in this study had also responded to the earlier study by Evans and Wiens (1973), and were compared to the population of that study on a number of social, occupation related and demographic variables. By comparing the groups used in this study with each other and to the population of the Evans and Wiens (1973) study on selected variables, a broader, more generalized, perspective was developed regarding the resulting similarities and differences that have a bearing on the revision and future testing of the prototype course and on the development of other similar courses.

Description of the Groups Used in the Study

Evans and Wiens (1973)

In the Evans and Wiens (1973) study a national stratified random sample of vocational educators was identified. Nearly 3,000 of the 4,000 persons in that sample responded to a comprehensive questionnaire which was used to collect social, educational, economic, demographic and career data. Most of the individuals who participated in the testing of the prototype course were also respondents to the earlier national survey of vocational educators by Evans and Wiens (1973), and were compared on selected characteristics to the national sample of vocational educators that was established in that study.

Invited Individuals

Invitations were sent to 203 vocational educators who had responded to the national survey conducted by Evans and Wiens (1973). Individuals invited were selected on the basis of a favorable response to an item in the questionnaire used by Evans and Wiens (1973) regarding the respondent's interest in a number of potential topics for programs of continuing education, among which was the topic of leadership development. While the selection of the individuals to whom invitations were sent was based primarily on their expressed interest in continuing education, particularly on the topic of leadership development, consideration was also given to such factors as interest in correspondence study and geographical location. An effort was made to have individual representation from as many states, school settings and different vocational education positions as possible to insure a thorough testing of the materials developed, while at the same time selecting individuals who would be likely to enroll in and complete the prototype course.

The invitation to participate in the initial offering of the prototype course consisted of a cover letter explaining the nature of the project (see Appendix A), sample course materials (i.e., the Introduction and Lesson 1 from the course syllabus) and the application form for the course. Completed application forms were received from 66 of the 203 vocational educators sent invitations. These individuals, representing 32 states and the District of Columbia, ranged in educational attainment from less than 5 semester hours of college work, to three persons having earned doctorates. However, 74.9% of the persons who enrolled in the course held at least a baccalaureate degree, with approximately 60% of these individuals having a master's degree or beyond. The age of individuals enrolled in the course ranged from 24 to 62, with an average age of 40.5 years.

The field school participants described in the next section were included in this group, bringing the total number of invited individuals to 225.

Field School Participants

In addition to testing the prototype course as a regular correspondence study offering, it was also tested using a modified form of the group correspondence study method. Group correspondence instruction is usually highly structured with specific requirements on the amount and type of work, or activities, that are to be completed. In this study, the decision as to how the materials could best be used in the group setting was made by each group, since the composition of the groups formed would consist of mature adult vocational education professionals.

Invitations were sent to the vocational directors of 11 schools, out of the 235 used in the Evans and Wiens (1973) study, offering them the opportunity to form a group to review and critique the course materials. The basis of their critique was to be the usefulness of the prototype course materials as a focus for an inservice education program. The selection of the schools sent invitations was based on a favorable response by individuals in those schools to the Evans and Wiens Questionnaire (1973) in which they indicated their interest in a number of possible topics for a program of continuing education. The schools selected, in addition to having a large number of faculty members who indicated an interest in continuing education, were in varied and wide-spread geographical settings, and included representation from each of the three school types used by Evans and Wiens (1973); i.e., comprehensive high schools, specialized technical and trade schools, and colleges and universities.

The invitation to the vocational director contained a cover letter explaining the purpose of the project and nature of their potential contribution

(see Appendix A), a sample of the instructional materials (the Introduction and Lesson 1 from the course syllabus), and a copy of the textbook to be used. Responses to the invitations were received from 4 of the 11 schools invited to serve as sites for the field testing of the prototype course on a group basis. The responding schools were all comprehensive high schools and, since 5 comprehensive high schools had been included in the 11 schools invited to participate in the study, represented an 80% response from this category of school. The schools electing to participate were located in Connecticut, Illinois, Utah and Alaska, with the number of individuals in each group being 6, 10, 12 and 12 respectively. No attempt was made to influence the composition of the groups, but a limit of 12 persons was established so that sufficient materials would be available for each participant.

The members of the groups in the Freeport, Illinois and Clearfield, Utah field schools chose to enroll in the prototype course for credit, while those in the Danbury, Connecticut and West Anchorage, Alaska field schools elected to review and critique the materials, without enrolling for credit in the course.

All but one of the individuals in the field schools who enrolled in the prototype course ($N=22$) held a baccalaureate degree, with close to 50% having a master's degree or beyond. The average age of the field school participants was 35.8 years.

Subgroups to be Compared

The persons participating in this study, both on an individual and on a group basis, have been placed into three main subgroups; 1) non-respondents, 2) non-completers, and 3) completers. These subgroups are individually, and in various combinations, compared with each other and with the Evans and Wiens (1973) population. However, not all of the individuals in the three subgroups

participated in the Evans and Wiens (1973) study, and therefore are missing from these groups and the subsequent analyses performed on them.

Non-respondents

The invited individuals who did not enroll in the initial offering of the prototype course have been categorized as non-respondents and are members of this subgroup.

Non-completers

The invited individuals who enrolled in the prototype course, but failed to complete all the course requirements are included in this subgroup.

Completers

Invited individuals who enrolled in the prototype course and subsequently completed all course requirements form the subgroup of completers. This subgroup was divided into two additional sub-categories, individual completers and field school completers and further analyzed.

Enrolled Individuals

The enrolled individuals represent the combined membership of the completers and non-completers subgroups. The purpose of using this combination in the analyses performed on the 41 selected variables was to permit an investigation of the similarities and differences between individuals who enrolled in the initial offering of the prototype course and those who did not.

Completion Rates

The completion rate in the prototype course for persons participating

on an individual basis, hereafter referred to as individual participants, is 58.8%. This figure is calculated using the National University Association formula (Matheison, 1972: 51). Of the 66 individual participants who enrolled in the prototype course, 34 submitted at least one lesson and 20 subsequently completed the course. The NUEA completion rate is calculated by dividing the number of persons actively participating in the course ($N=34$) into the number actually completing the course ($N=20$). Additionally, three other individual participants have completed nearly all of the course requirements, and should finish the course.

The completion rate for field school participants is quite high; 95.5%. Of the 22 enrolled for credit, 21 completed the course. The one person who did not receive credit in the course participated in all group meetings at that school and was responsible for presenting one of the lessons.

With 41 of the 55 active participants successfully meeting all of the course requirements, the completion rate for the prototype course, all completers combined, was 75.0%.

Related to the completion rates in the prototype course is the amount of time required by participants to actually prepare, submit and have lessons returned. The median number of days from the date on which the invitations were sent to prospective participants to the date when the first lesson was received in the Correspondence Courses Office was 31 days for individual participants who completed the course. The median number of days between the submission of lessons varied from 14 days, between lessons 1 and 2, to 6 days, between lessons 5 and 6, for course completers. Using the median number of days between lessons for individuals completing the course, 62 days would generally be required to complete all eight lessons. Not included in the 62 days figure is the time required from enrollment to the receipt of the course syllabus and textbook, or

the time required to schedule and complete the proctored final examination. One individual, in Lewiston, Maine, managed to complete all eight lessons in 19 days and did excellent work in the process. On the other hand, three individual participants, who will probably complete the prototype course, have yet to do so and should establish a completion record of the opposite type.

The two field schools whose group members were enrolled for credit, completed their assignments at a rate of approximately one per week. Both groups held an organizational meeting then proceeded using and critiquing the course materials. The group in Clearfield, Utah discussed a single lesson at each one hour meeting, while the group in Freeport, Illinois met for two hours and frequently covered two lessons.

The individuals in the groups at Danbury, Connecticut and West Anchorage, Alaska did not enroll in the initial offering of the prototype course for credit, although both expressed a desire to do so. The late starting date for the testing of the prototype course, and the fact that graduate credit for completing the course could not be guaranteed when the testing phase was initiated, were given as reasons for these schools not becoming more actively involved. The group in Connecticut did meet several times to discuss the course materials, procedures and content. Summaries of those meetings and a tape recording of part of another meeting were submitted by this group. The Alaska group decided that they would have to wait until the beginning of the next school year before they would have time to devote to the task of using and critiquing the course materials. It is anticipated that they will enroll in the course for credit at that time.

Comparisons of Group Characteristics

A question of major interest in this analysis was the extent to which

the groups in this study differed from each other and from the national sample of vocational educators gathered by Evans and Wiens (1973) on 41 selected variables. Chi square was used to test five different pairings of the groups on each of the selected variables. The Evans and Wiens population was paired with invited individuals (non-respondents, non-completers and completers) with enrolled individuals and with completers; invited individuals were paired with enrolled individuals; and enrolled individuals were compared to completers in this part of the analysis. The first three pairs to be compared provided a test of the similarity of the individuals in this study to the national norms established by the individuals in the Evans and Wiens (1973) study, on 41 selected variables. The remaining two comparisons were between groups in this study and were selected because of their potential for yielding information that would help to identify differences between persons who enroll in correspondence courses and those who do not; and between persons who enroll in correspondence courses and subsequently complete and those who enroll and do not complete.

In all, 205 Chi squares were calculated using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Nie, Bent and Hull, 1970). The contingency tables and associated information have been assembled and placed on file in the Bureau of Educational Research at the University of Illinois. Of those comparisons that are important due to the significance, or lack of significance, of the resulting Chi square are reported in this study. The 41 selected variables have been placed into 8 categories for the purpose of discussion.

Employment Related Variables

The variables in this category are; 1) school type, 2) primary area of assignment, and 3) years of educational experience. All comparisons in which

school type was used as the variable yielded statistically significant Chi square values. Table 5 presents the distribution of the individuals in each group by school type. The completers subgroup, either individually or in combination with other subgroups, enters the calculations for each of the five Chi squares. The fact that nearly 65% of the completers were vocational educators from the comprehensive high school setting appears to account for all of the Chi squares being statistically significant. The percentage of individuals from the high school setting, in each of the five Chi square contingency tables, was higher than the representation of this group in Evans and Wiens (1973) population.

The second variable in this category is notable for its almost complete lack of significance. Table 6 presents a breakdown by primary area of assignment of the vocational educators in each of the groups in this study. When this variable is used as a basis for comparison, significant Chi squares result between the group of completers and the Evans and Wiens (1973) population, and between the completers and non-completers subgroups. The major differences between the Evans and Wiens (1973) population and the completers in this analysis occur in several areas; 1) trade and industrial educators represent 41.6% of the Evans and Wiens (1973) population, but only 21.2% of the completers and 2) home economics educators and counselors represent 6.2% and 6.7% respectively of the Evans and Wiens (1973) population, but 21.2% and 15.2% of the group of completers. Differences between enrollees and completers are the result of the differential completion rates among vocational educators in the various areas of assignments. For example, persons in the business, coordination or supervision, trade and industrial, or personal and public services areas have approximately 25% rates of completion when enrollments and completions are compared. On the other hand, agriculture, office occupations, counselors, and

TABLE 5
DISTRIBUTION OF THE GROUPS USED
IN THE STUDY BY SCHOOL TYPE

School Type	Evans and Wiens (1)	Non- Respondents (2)	Non- Completers (3)	Completers (4)
Comprehensive High Schools	N = 693 % = 25.0	N = 43 % = 29.5	N = 10 % = 25.6	N = 24 % = 64.9
Specialized Voca- tional and Trade Schools	N = 1031 % = 37.1	N = 54 % = 37.0	N = 10 % = 25.6	N = 6 % = 16.2
Colleges and Universities	N = 1053 % = 37.9	N = 49 % = 33.6	N = 19 % = 48.7	N = 7 % = 18.9
Totals	N = 2777 % = 100	N = 146 % = 100	N = 39 % = 100	N = 37 % = 100

Chi squares:

$$\chi^2 (1)(2,3,4) = 10.27 (p < .01)$$

$$\chi^2 (1)(3,4) = 16.89 (p < .01)$$

$$\chi^2 (1)(4) = 30.66 (p < .01)$$

$$\chi^2 (2)(3,4) = 7.40 (p < .05)$$

$$\chi^2 (3)(4) = 12.26 (p < .01)$$

TABLE 6
DISTRIBUTION OF THE GROUPS USED
IN THE STUDY BY AREA OF ASSIGNMENT

Area of Assignment	Evans and Wiens (1)	Non- Respondents (2)	Non- Completers (3)	Completers (4)
Agriculture	N = 106 % = 4.7	N = 9 % = 7.8	N = 0 % = 0.0	N = 2 % = 6.1
Office Occupations	N = 254 % = 11.3	N = 18 % = 15.5	N = 0 % = 0.0	N = 5 % = 15.2
Business Occupations	N = 151 % = 6.7	N = 2 % = 1.7	N = 3 % = 8.8	N = 1 % = 3.0
Distributive Education	N = 53 % = 2.4	N = 0 % = 0.0	N = 2 % = 5.9	N = 1 % = 3.0
Health Occupations	N = 267 % = 11.9	N = 17 % = 14.7	N = 2 % = 5.9	N = 4 % = 12.1
Trade and Industrial	N = 937 % = 41.6	N = 49 % = 42.2	N = 20 % = 58.8	N = 7 % = 21.2
Personal and Public Service	N = 82 % = 3.6	N = 2 % = 1.7	N = 1 % = 2.9	N = 0 % = 0.0
Home Economics	N = 140 % = 6.2	N = 9 % = 7.8	N = 1 % = 2.9	N = 7 % = 21.2
Counselors	N = 152 % = 6.7	N = 44 % = 3.4	N = 2 % = 5.9	N = 5 % = 15.2
Coordinators and Supervisors	N = 110 % = 4.9	N = 6 % = 5.2	N = 3 % = 8.8	N = 1 % = 3.0
Totals	N = 2252 % = 100	N = 116 % = 100	N = 34 % = 100	N = 33 % = 100

(continued)

TABLE 6 (continued)
DISTRIBUTION OF THE GROUPS USED
IN THE STUDY BY AREA OF ASSIGNMENT

Chi squares:

$$\chi^2 (1)(2,3,4) = 1.99$$

$$\chi^2 (1)(3,4) = 8.65$$

$$\chi^2 (1)(4) = 19.51 (p<.05)$$

$$\chi^2 (2)(3,4) = 14.89$$

$$\chi^2 (3)(4) = 1.83 (p<.05)$$

home economics educators all have 70% or better completion rates when the same comparison is made.

Education Related Variables

The variables in this category are based on information regarding the vocational educators'; 1) educational attainment, 2) method of teacher preparation, 3) future educational plans, and 4) pursuit of an initial or advanced degree. Only one education related variable yielded a significant Chi square when used as a basis for comparing the groups in this study. Wiens (1973) developed a variable for determining future educational plans of vocational educators, which took into account the academic attainment of the individual. Individuals were categorized as either high or low in educational attainment and as having or not having plans for further education. The future education plans of the individuals invited to test the prototype course differed from those of the vocational educators in the Evans and Wiens Study (1973). Table 7 presents the distribution of the individuals in these two groups by future

TABLE 7
FUTURE EDUCATIONAL PLANS OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATORS
IN THE EVANS AND WIENS (1973) POPULATION
AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATORS INVITED TO TEST
THE PROTOTYPE COURSE

Future Plans	Evans and Wiens	Invited Individuals
(1) Low Education- No plans	N = 383 % = 14.0	N = 16 % = 7.3
(2) Low Education- With plans	N = 515 % = 18.8	N = 56 % = 25.6
(3) High Education- No plans	N = 672 % = 24.5	N = 51 % = 23.3
(4) High Education- With plans	N = 1174 % = 42.8	N = 96 % = 43.8
Total	N = 2744 % = 100	N = 219 % = 100

Chi squares:

$$\chi^2 (1,2,3,4) = 11.71 (p < .01)$$

$$\chi^2 (1,2) = 11.51 (p < .01)$$

education plans. A second Chi square, computed using only those vocational educators with low educational achievement, was found to be statistically significant. The tendency for individuals with low educational attainment, but having future educational plans, to be invited to participate in the testing of the prototype course in greater numbers than their presence in the Evans and Wiens (1973) study is the result of the selection criteria used. It can be expected that persons with low educational attainment, but having plans for additional education, will show a greater interest in topics of continuing education than will their counter-parts with no future education plans.

Number of Organization Memberships

The variables in this category are the number of different memberships held in the following types of organizations in the past five years: 1) national professional organizations, 2) state professional organizations, 3) local professional organizations, 4) all professional organizations combined, and 5) non-professional organizations. A significant Chi square resulted from the comparison between non-respondents and enrolled individuals on the number of national professional organization memberships held. The number of memberships ranged from 0 to 7, and resulted in several cells with low frequencies. Table 8 presents a description of the number of national professional organization memberships held by individuals in these groups. It appears from Table 8 that persons enrolling in the prototype course are more likely to hold memberships in two or more national professional organizations than are non-respondents.

Three of the five comparisons on the combined number of professional organization memberships resulted in significant Chi squares. Table 9 presents the distributions of the subgroups in this study by number of professional organization memberships. Both the enrolled individuals (non-completers and

TABLE 8
DISTRIBUTION OF NON-RESPONDENTS AND
ENROLLED INDIVIDUALS BY NUMBER OF NATIONAL
PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATION MEMBERSHIPS HELD¹

Number of Memberships	Non- Respondents	Enrolled Individuals
0	N = 32 % = 22.2	N = 10 % = 13.3
1	N = 50 % = 34.7	N = 18 % = 24.0
2	N = 22 % = 14.6	N = 28 % = 37.3
3 or more	N = 39 % = 28.5	N = 19 % = 25.4
Total	N = 144 % = 100	N = 75 % = 100

Chi square:

$$\chi^2 = 16.11 (p < .05)$$

¹The cells representing 3 to 7 memberships, used in the Chi square calculation, have been combined in the presentation of this table.

TABLE 9
DISTRIBUTION OF THE GROUPS IN
THE STUDY BY NUMBER OF PROFESSIONAL
ORGANIZATION MEMBERSHIPS HELD

Number of Memberships	Evans and Wiens (1)	Non- Respondents (2)	Non- Completers (3)	Completers (4)
0 - 2	N = 608 % = 31.4	N = 29 % = 28.4	N = 4 % = 16.0	N = 6 % = 25.0
3 - 4	N = 724 % = 37.4	N = 43 % = 42.2	N = 10 % = 40.0	N = 3 % = 12.5
5 or more	N = 606 % = 31.3	N = 30 % = 29.4	N = 11 % = 44.0	N = 15 % = 62.5
Totals	N = 1938 % = 100	N = 102 % = 100	N = 25 % = 100	N = 24 % = 100

Chi squares:

$$\chi^2 (1)(2,3,4) = 2.89$$

$$\chi^2 (1)(3,4) = 10.49 (p < .01)$$

$$\chi^2 (1)(4) = 11.57 (p < .01)$$

$$\chi^2 (2)(3,4) = 8.00 (p < .05)$$

$$\chi^2 (3)(4) = 4.77$$

completers) and the completers subgroups appear to be more likely to hold a higher number of professional organization members than the Evans and Wiens (1973) population or the non-respondents.

All other comparisons on variables in this category resulted in non-significant Chi squares.

Memberships in Specific Organizations

Chi square was used to test for differences in the membership of individuals in the groupings being compared in this study with regard to the following organizations: 1) American Vocational Association, 2) National Education Association, 3) American or United Federations of Teachers, 4) State Vocational Association, 5) State Education Association, and 6) State Vocational Association Specialty Area. Respondents were asked to indicate which of these they had held membership in within the past five years.

Two significant Chi squares resulted from comparisons on the membership in State Vocational Associations (see Table 10). The significant Chi squares were obtained when the enrolled individuals (non-completers and completers) were compared to the Evans and Wiens (1973) population and to the non-respondents. There appears to be a tendency for individuals who hold memberships in State Vocational Associations to enroll in the prototype course to a greater extent than their representation in the population as a whole or in the population of invited individuals in this study.

One significant ($p < .05$) and two nearly significant Chi squares resulted from comparisons of State Education Association membership between the Evans and Wiens (1973) population and the invited individuals, enrolled individuals and completers subgroups, with the comparison to the enrolled individuals being statistically significant. Whereas 56.4% of the Evans and Wiens (1973) population

TABLE 10
DISTRIBUTION OF THE INDIVIDUALS IN THE GROUPS
IN THE STUDY BY STATE VOCATIONAL
ASSOCIATION MEMBERSHIP

Membership Status	Evans and Wiens (1)	Non- Respondents (2)	Non- Completers (3)	Completers (4)
Not Member	N = 1236 % = 49.3	N = 65 % = 49.2	N = 10 % = 27.8	N = 13 % = 37.1
Member	N = 1272 % = 50.7	N = 67 % = 50.8	N = 26 % = 72.2	N = 22 % = 62.9
Totals	N = 2508 % = 100	N = 132 % = 100	N = 36 % = 100	N = 35 % = 100

Chi squares:

$$\chi^2 (1)(2,3,4) = 2.41$$

$$\chi^2 (1)(3,4) = 7.22 (p < .01)$$

$$\chi^2 (1)(4) = 1.58$$

$$\chi^2 (2)(3,4) = 4.67 (p < .05)$$

$$\chi^2 (3)(4) = .35$$

held State Education Association membership, 63% of the invited individuals, 71.8% of the enrolled individuals and 74.3% of the completers held such membership.

Three other Chi squares were very close to being statistically significant and deserve mention. The percentage of persons enrolling in the prototype course who held a membership in the American Vocational Association was higher than the percentage of such memberships in the Evans and Wiens (1973) population, 60.6% compared to 48.7%, and was very close to being statistically significant ($p=.06$). AFT-UFT membership among the non-respondents was 18.2% compared to 7.0% for enrolled individuals and was close to being statistically significant ($p=.051$). Membership in state vocational associations within an individual's area of specialization was 26.5% among the non-respondents and 40.8% among the enrolled individuals, with the resulting Chi square approaching statistical significance ($p=.053$).

Number of Offices Held

Individuals in the study were compared on the number of offices they held within the past five years in national, state and local professional organizations, and in non-professional organizations. No statistically significant Chi squares resulted from the 20 comparisons for which they were calculated.

Self-evaluation of Professional Activity

Each individual was asked to indicate whether they viewed him or herself as being more active or less active than vocational educators with similar job assignments with regard to participation in job related, national, state and local professional organizations, and non-professional organizations. Three Chi square comparisons between the groups were statistically significant.

However, one contained a zero cell and did not appear otherwise noteworthy, and is therefore not discussed. The other two significant Chi squares ($p < .05$) resulted from comparisons of enrolled individuals with the Evans and Wiens (1973) population, and with the non-respondents in regard to their level of activity in non-professional organizations. In both cases the differences were the result of the enrolled individuals taking a more neutral stance regarding their activities in these areas, while the persons in the other groups tended to make greater use of both extremes (more active - less active).

Preferred Method of Continuing Education

Table 2, page 20, reported the percentage of respondents in the Evans and Wiens (1973) population indicating an interest in potential topics for continuing education, and preference of a method of instruction for each. Chi squares were calculated to compare the preferred method of instruction by each of the groups in this study on each of the topics listed in Table 2. As would be expected, since a preference for correspondence study was one criterion for selecting the individuals invited to participate in the initial offering of the prototype course, nearly all such comparisons between groups in the study and the Evans and Wiens (1973) population were statistically very significant. Comparisons between groups in the study were, for the most part, not statistically significant. The lone notable exception was in the area of "other topics", where no statistically significant differences existed in any of the comparisons.

Other Related Variables

Included in this final category of variables is community size, sex, ethnic background, marital status and children at home (high school age or

under). Chi square comparisons between the Evans and Wiens (1973) population and the invited individuals, enrolled individuals and completers, with regard to the community size in which their vocational school is located, were statistically significant (see Table 11). It would appear that in general individuals participating in this study work in vocational programs located in smaller communities than the population as a whole, as represented by the Evans and Wiens (1973) population.

One final Chi square comparison was statistically significant. When the composition by sex of the non-completers and completers subgroups were compared, a Chi square of 15.38 ($p < .01$) resulted. Women account for 5% of the non-completers and 47.2% of the completers. The completion rate for men enrolled in the prototype course is 33.9%, for women 89.5%.

Other Characteristics

Of the 66 individual participants enrolling in the prototype course for credit, 10 were not eligible to receive graduate credit. In the field schools, only one person out of the 22 who enrolled in the prototype course was ineligible for graduate credit. Therefore, 88% of the persons enrolled in the course were eligible for graduate credit.

An analysis of the information resulting from a question contained on the enrollment form for the course indicates that 54 of the 59 individuals responding to the item were not involved in other formal learning activities (such as resident or extension classes) at the time of enrollment.

Participant Performance

Lessons

The 34 individual participants in the course submitted a total of 199

TABLE 11
DISTRIBUTION OF GROUPS USED IN THE STUDY
BY COMMUNITY SIZE

Community Size	Evans and Wiens (1)	Non-Respondents (2)	Non-Completers (3)	Completers (4)
Metropolitan Area	N = 747 % = 27.1	N = 34 % = 23.4	N = 9 % = 23.1	N = 4 % = 10.8
Suburb of Metropolitan Area	N = 339 % = 12.3	N = 12 % = 8.3	N = 1 % = 2.6	N = 3 % = 8.1
10,000 to 100,000	N = 1030 % = 37.4	N = 55 % = 37.9	N = 15 % = 38.5	N = 12 % = 32.4
2,500 to 9,999	N = 312 % = 11.3	N = 17 % = 11.7	N = 4 % = 10.3	N = 12 % = 32.4
Town to 2,499	N = 268 % = 9.7	N = 24 % = 16.6	N = 8 % = 20.5	N = 3 % = 8.1
Open Country	N = 60 % = 2.2	N = 3 % = 2.1	N = 2 % = 5.1	N = 3 % = 8.1
Totals	N = 2756 % = 100	N = 145 % = 100	N = 39 % = 100	N = 37 % = 100

Chi squares:

$$\chi^2 (1)(2,3,4) = 18.69 (p < .01)$$

$$\chi^2 (1)(3,4) = 19.83 (p < .01)$$

$$\chi^2 (1)(4) = 24.19 (p < .01)$$

$$\chi^2 (2)(3,4) = 7.49$$

$$\chi^2 (3)(4) = 9.68$$

completed lessons, 18 proctored final examinations and 4 term papers. While very few lessons were of marginal quality, three were rejected out-right. One individual participant had his first lesson rejected, another person his first two lessons (he did not wait for the return of the first lesson before submitting the second - due to the pressure of completing the course in a short time span). Neither of these individuals completed any additional lessons or the course, although several letters were exchanged with one of these individuals encouraging him to do so.

Failure to submit the second lesson is the point where the highest percentage, 14.7% (N=5), of the individuals who start but do not complete the prototype course discontinue their participation. Another 8.8% (N=3) withdrew before submitting the third lesson, and an equal number prior to submitting the fourth lesson. The completion rate for individuals who submitted the fourth lesson was 87%, with two of the three individuals in this category who have not completed very likely to do so soon.

The field schools that had the opportunity to begin using and critiquing the materials and procedures had a 100% completion rate for this task. The lone individual field school participant who did not receive credit for his efforts, was involved in the discussion of all eight lessons.

Final Examinations

Proctored final examinations were taken by 18 of the 20 individual participants and 21 of the 22 field school participants. A summary of the results and the t - test on the means are presented in Table 12. The mean examination scores for the two field schools were 86.2 and 86.6, and were therefore combined in the summary found in Table 12.

TABLE 12
FINAL EXAMINATION SUMMARY

Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Individual Participants	18	87.11	7.99
Field School Participants	21	86.33	6.66

$t = .323$ (df=37)

For statistical significance ($p < .05$) $t = 2.042$ (df=37) is required.

Course Grades

Grades for individual participants were assigned on the basis of a proctored final examination or a final project (term paper), with consideration given to the quality of the work on the lessons in the course. Grades assigned to field school participants were based on the quality of the proctored final examination, contribution to group meetings - determined through consultation with the group liaison person (the Vocational Program Director at both sites), and on other individual materials submitted along with the recordings of the group meetings.

Based on the University of Illinois grading system (A = 5.0), the mean grade received by individual participants in the study was 4.70 (N=20), and for field school participants 4.71 (N=21).

Course Evaluation

A major part of the efforts in this study have been focused on the collection of formative and summative evaluation data on all aspects of the prototype course. The evaluation data on the prototype course include an initial review of the materials by a panel of five consultants, telephone interviews with 8 non-respondents, two end-of-course evaluation forms, a critique of the lesson materials by a resident graduate class studying the administration of vocational education, on-site interviews with field school participants, an external project evaluation and a follow-up survey of non-completers.

Consultant Reviews

A lesson evaluation form was developed for use by the 5 consultants who reviewed each lesson prior to their being tested (see Appendix B). Many of the unique features of the prototype course resulted from the evaluations provided by these individuals. For example, the cognitive maps that appear in the course syllabus were suggested by one of the consultants who had worked on a project where they had been successfully used with individuals similar to a large part of the population in this study. While the consultants provided technical assistance throughout the development of the prototype course, they were most helpful in its formative stages where the important decisions with regard to the format, length and administrative procedures to be used were made.

Telephone Interviews of Non-Respondents

During late April and early May follow-up telephone interviews were conducted with eight individuals who had been invited to participate in the initial offering of the prototype course, but had not responded. The interview schedule used is appended to this report (see Appendix D). The purpose of the follow-up interview was two-fold: 1) to discover their reaction to the invitation

and the materials which accompanied it; and 2) to ascertain the reason(s) they chose not to participate.

Of the eight non-respondents interviewed, 3 were women and 5 were men, all of whom expressed a neutral reaction to the invitation (cover letter). However, all eight were generally impressed by the sample course materials. One individual passed his copy of the sample materials and the invitation along to a colleague who subsequently enrolled in the course.

The fact that graduate credit could not be offered at the time the invitations were sent was the primary reason indicated by seven of the eight persons interviewed for not responding to the offer to participate. The eighth individual had already taken a similar course for graduate credit. Other reasons cited for not participating in the testing of the prototype course were; 1) the individual was already enrolled in an extra course (4 persons), 2) the individual's present workload was already too heavy (3 persons), and 3) the individual was involved in a school building program (1 person). The interviews were conducted by Mr. Larry Grabb, a research assistant in the Bureau of Educational Research, who was working with this project.

On-site Evaluations

A visitation team traveled to three of the four schools serving as sites for the field testing of the prototype course, on a group basis, to interview the members of each group. The site in West Anchorage, Alaska was the only one not visited. An interview schedule was developed to provide a degree of uniformity in the categories of data collected. However, the format of each visit was different due to the need to fit interviews and meetings into the existing school schedules. A copy of the interview schedule and a list of the visitation team members are appended to this report (see Appendix E).

The on-site visits allowed team members to meet with field school personnel within and outside the groups in collecting data about the effectiveness and acceptability of the course materials and procedures. Each visit included meeting with the group as a whole, the principal of the field school and the superintendent of the district in which the field school was located. Additionally, several students were interviewed during the visit to the school in Freeport, Illinois.

A strength of visiting three different schools participating in the study, aside from the insight that was provided with regard to the different perspectives and settings, was the fact that each school was at a different stage in the evaluation of the prototype course materials and procedures when visited. The school at Danbury, Connecticut had not started their critique at the time the on-site visit was made, but subsequently provided very valuable information regarding the course. The Freeport, Illinois field school had completed two-thirds of the course at the time the on-site visit was made. The Clearfield, Utah group had completed all their lessons, but not the final examination by the time the visitation team arrived at their school. The field school in West Anchorage, Alaska was not visited, nor did they critique the prototype course materials and procedures. The late starting date, early completion date and the necessity of devoting their attention to other pressing school matters late in the school year prevented them from doing so. However, they remain interested in the study, and anticipate enrolling in the course and evaluating the course materials and procedures during the fall semester.

Since the field schools at Freeport, Illinois and Clearfield, Utah had both covered the major share of the course prior to the on-site visit, their responses are combined, except where important differences exist, and follow the discussion of the Danbury visit.

For a number of reasons, the members of the group in the Danbury, Connecticut field school had not started their review and critique of the prototype course and materials prior to the on-site visit. However, it was obvious from meeting with the group members that they had, on an individual basis, been familiarizing themselves with the textbook and course syllabus. Initially they had wanted to participate only if graduate credit could be awarded. When the decision was made to participate without the assurance that graduate credit would be extended to them, their participation in this study was delayed even further by the illness of several group members. Additionally, the Danbury Public School System had recently made a firm commitment to the concept of career education, and the vocational director was the liaison person from the high school to the career education council that had been formed, which limited severely the amount of time he could give to this study. The visitation team was able to sit in on a part of a council meeting while in Danbury, and was favorably impressed with the progress being made. The interview schedule used in other on-site visits was inappropriate in this setting. The visitation team was unable to meet with several of the Danbury group members due to the distance they had to travel to get to the high school.

In discussions with the available group members, it was pointed out that inservice programs for vocational educators were irregular, and generally restricted to subject matter development rather than career development (which was the context in which the group viewed the prototype course). Major concerns expressed by the group centered around the reading level of the textbook, prerequisites for the prototype course (most group members felt that it should be limited to practitioners only), and other topics that might be developed and offered in the same manner. Two members of the group who had taken correspondence study courses in the past, expressed favorable opinions with regard to the course

syllabus and organization. However, there appeared to be a concern among group members that more guidance on the use of the materials in the group setting be provided. Meetings with the principal and the superintendent made it clear that the group participating in this study had the firm support of the administration, and that the administration had been informed of its existence.

Of the on-site visits to the other two field schools, the most eventful was the one to Freeport, Illinois. The date for the visit came shortly after it became apparent that graduate credit would be awarded to eligible participants who completed the course requirements, but before the official notification was received from the Graduate College at the University of Illinois. Several members of the group were upset over the fact that the standards established for the awarding of graduate credit were considerably higher than those for undergraduate credit, and that they would have to meet the "new" standards if they wanted to remain eligible for such credit, if and when a favorable determination was made by the Graduate College. The visit to Clearfield, Utah was made after the official notification had been received that graduate credit could be awarded to individuals who were eligible for such credit.

The following discussion focuses on the responses given by members of the Freeport, Illinois and Clearfield, Utah field study groups to questions from the interview schedule (see Appendix E).

Questions 1, 4, 5, 6, 8, 12 and 14 dealt with the participants' evaluation of the course itself. For example, in question 5 the person being interviewed is asked to identify what the principal value of the course was to them personally, to their vocational program, to their school and to their profession. One theme seemed to be ever present in the responses to all questions about the value of the course; the course as currently structured was an asset to improved or increased communications between group members. Several members

of the Freeport group mentioned that the topics in the course were discussed over the lunch table, on the way to and from professional meetings and in other informal settings. Several members of the Clearfield group mentioned that they had formed a small subgroup of 3 or 4 individuals who met regularly, in advance of regular group meeting, to discuss the materials. In fact, they felt that small group meetings were more personally satisfying to them and would enable them to profit more from this type of course.

Both the men and the women in the Clearfield group were concerned that communications had not been better between them in the past. The group meetings opened a channel for the exchange of ideas and the development of mutual professional respect. Both the male and female group members felt that the increased rapport had permeated other areas within the program.

Individuals in both schools specifically identified the one year and five year plans that were developed in the course as having great personal value to them (questions 15 and 17). They felt that these plans provided them with a sense of commitment to the profession and a sense of direction in pursuing that commitment. The opinion was expressed by both vocational directors, and supported by group members, that all eight topics in the course could have received more time than they were able to give them, and that any one of them could have been developed into a valuable inservice program.

Individuals in both groups found the course material "difficult", but reacted favorably to it, with several exceptions. The exceptions were individuals who had lost interest in the course, but wanted to see it through to the end. In several of the interviews, group members suggested that the reading notes be expanded as a way of making the course more relevant and less difficult.

Although the group members in both schools held a positive view towards the merits of the prototype course, some of the members in the Clearfield group

(women and counselors) were reluctant to make comparisons between it and other courses they had taken on similar or related topics. This was due to the fact that few of them had taken such a course in the past. The principal of the school, who was a participant in the group, had taken leadership courses in the past and had studied a number of texts on the topic was high in his praise for the prototype course. When the group members in both schools were asked to compare the prototype course to other "regular" courses, they rated it very high.

The procedures used in both schools were locally determined and were different; and each drew a mixed reaction depending on the persons interviewed. For example, individuals in the Freeport group were asked to review the sample materials sent to the vocational director and indicate whether they would be interested in participating in the group. Shortly thereafter, the vocational director went around to individuals expressing an interest in the project and "told" them that they were to be in the group and when they were to meet. Several members of the group who had expressed a neutral reaction to the invitation to be a part of the group in the school, accepted the vocational directors suggestion that it would be a valuable experience for them and had the potential for improving the school's inservice program.

Participant selection was completely voluntary for persons in the Clearfield group. Each individual was able to review the sample materials and sign-up for the group if interested. The group membership was determined by the order in which they signed-up. More individuals wanted to participate than could be accommodated in the initial offering of the prototype course.

The activities of the Freeport group were highly structured, which is in keeping with the characteristics of the vocational director in that school. The other two schools (Clearfield and Danbury) operated with less structure and the persons interviewed indicated that they would have liked more guidance from the

project staff at the University of Illinois.

All communications between the University of Illinois and the Clearfield group were handled by mail, or through telephone conversations with the vocational director. Included in these communicates were comments on the tape recordings of the group meetings, procedural matters and suggestions for getting the most from the experience. While the persons interviewed felt that the time factor created many problems for the group, the rapport with the University project staff was excellent.

Communications with the field school in Freeport, Illinois were handled in the same manner, with the addition of conference telephone calls to the group by this investigator on meeting nights. While the calls themselves were not viewed as smashing successes, they did appear to convey a concern by the University for the continuing education of the group members. The approach taken by the University in this project was viewed as "humanistic" by several group members and appeared to be quite unexpected by them.

The groups at all three field schools had strong administrative support, with credit on the salary schedule being extended to participants in Clearfield and Freeport before it was known that graduate credit would be awarded. The principals in both Freeport and Clearfield expressed an interest in participating in the groups at their schools, with the latter individual doing so. The vocational directors and group members in all three schools were pleased with the favorable exposure that participating in a national project such as this gave them with regard to the administration, their peers, counselors and other school personnel.

External Evaluation

An external evaluation of the project was made by Arthur J. Boynton (1973)

when the project was approximately 75% completed. Contained in the evaluation report is a very thorough description of the rationale and objectives, procedures, the materials developed, instructional strategies used, antecedent conditions and overall judgements related to the project. Among the recommendations contained in this report are:

1. The completion date for the project be extended.
2. Evaluation be continuous throughout the project.
3. The course continue to be offered by correspondence after the project expiration date, for graduate credit.
4. Applicants should be carefully screened prior to enrollment.
5. Course instructors be assigned on the basis of their understanding of the strengths and weaknesses of correspondence study.
6. Additional courses, possibly in the area of administration be developed. (Boynton, 1973: 23-4)

A copy of this evaluation is on file in the Bureau of Educational Research at the University of Illinois.

VOTEC 489 Evaluation

The members of the Vocational and Technical Education 489 class in the Administration and Supervision of Vocational and Technical Education agreed to review and critique the prototype course materials. An overview of the project and rationale for the course was presented to the class. Class members were each assigned a lesson to complete and discuss with the class.

As a whole, this class presented some very excellent criticisms of the material and some equally fine recommendations for their improvement. Their task was a most difficult one in that each lesson builds on other previous lessons.

However, taking lessons in isolation, as they did, provided a severe test of their independence from one another, and the clarity of the individual lessons. Obviously, the lessons containing the greatest amount of overlap were the most difficult to comprehend and received the lowest ratings. With two exceptions all lessons and the course were rated very high by the class members. Following is one of the comments made by a class member, and typifies the class reaction to the course:

This lesson made all kinds of sense to me, but then I'm in the midst of the whole thing. One might think it was personally designed for me and the likes of me! I had trouble trying to look at the lesson with someone else's perspective. I strongly identified with the material in the book, the overview, and reading notes.

End-of-Course Evaluation

The Illinois Correspondence Courses Evaluation Questionnaire and the VOTEC x 349 Evaluation Questionnaire (see Appendix F) were used to collect end of course evaluation data.

With regard to the difficulty of the course, the Freeport participants were more likely to say that the course was difficult. However, the mean response for all completers was 3.53, which is half way between the "about right" and "difficult" response categories. The ratings for the interest in the course ranged from somewhat neutral in the Freeport group to interesting in the Clearfield group and for individuals in the course. When asked about plans to take additional correspondence courses in the future, 42% of the completers said yes, 42% said only if they need to, and 15% said no. Only 5% of the completers felt that this course took less time to complete than residence courses.

The mean time spent preparing lessons was much higher for individual participants than for field school participants (6.2 hours verses 3.7 and 4.5

hours). The Clearfield participants were more likely to find correspondence study, as represented in this project, less appealing than were individual or Freeport participants (mean response of 2.58, 3.00 and 3.11 respectively). In all, 74% of the completers felt that the prototype course was better than most resident courses they had taken, and 96% felt the course content would be of use to them.

The Freeport group was more inclined to respond neutrally to the list of adjectives used to describe the instructor for the course, with 44% finding the instructor ambiguous, and another 44% responding neutrally to this adjective. In contrast, 20% of the Clearfield group responded neutrally to this item and the remaining 80% disagreed with the idea that the instructor was ambiguous. The response from the individual participants was 12% neutral, 88% disagree, or strongly disagree.

It should be noted in passing that on the day that the Freeport group was scheduled to take the proctored final examination in the course, the exams had yet to arrive. It was necessary for the vocational director in that school to call the Correspondence Courses Office at the University of Illinois and have a copy of the final examination transcribed over the telephone. The course evaluation forms, which had been sent after the exams, arrived on time and were filled out prior to taking the final examination.

The second end-of-course evaluation instrument, the VOTEC x 349 Evaluation Instrument, was designed to gather information on specific comparisons between the prototype correspondence course and resident courses. A total of 34 individuals out of the 37 respondents were eligible for graduate credit.

In comparison to resident classes, the prototype course was rated as of slightly lower quality by only 5.6% of all respondents, 41.7 said it was of

comparable quality and the remaining 52.8% rated it higher in quality than residence courses. When asked to make a similar comparison to the best resident classes they had taken 66.7% of the Freeport group, 91.7% of the Clearfield group and 64.6% of the individual participants rated the prototype course as about the same in quality, or slightly higher.

The amount of preparation time required for each lesson in the prototype course was rated as taking longer than the preparation in resident classes by 61.1% of all completers and lower by only 8.3% of these individuals. When the same comparison was made with the best resident classes, 12.1% reported that the preparation time was lower, the other 87.9% rated it the same or higher.

On comparisons of difficulty, the prototype course was rated about the same as or of greater difficulty than resident courses by 94.4% of all respondents. It is interesting to note that 13.3% of the individual participants found the prototype course to be less difficult than resident courses, while 8.3% of the Clearfield group and none of the Freeport group gave it a similar rating. In comparison with the best resident courses, 88.7% of all respondents rated the prototype course of equal or greater difficulty.

Over 94% of all respondents reported that they had discussed this course with other educators, 75.8% of whom seemed interested in the project.

The respondents were asked to rate the value of the prototype course in comparison to their regular inservice program. Nearly 87% of these individuals rated it as at least of slightly greater value, with 48.6% indicating that it was much more valuable. When compared with the best inservice programs of which they were aware, 86.1% reported the prototype course to be of comparable or greater value. Of even greater importance is the fact that 86.5% of all respondents felt that the prototype course was meeting an important vocational education need. A like number felt it also met an important professional need

for them.

There was nearly universal agreement among all respondents, 97.3%, that the prototype course could be taught with reasonable effectiveness via correspondence. In fact, 81.1% recommended that additional courses be developed. When asked whether graduate credit should be awarded to eligible individuals who complete the prototype course, 97.2% indicated a favorable attitude toward such a practice.

The individual participants in the course were asked to rate the value of the tape recorded lesson response that was part of one lesson in the course. It was found to be of help to 92.9% of them.

Non-Completer Follow-up Survey

A Participant Status Form and cover letter (see Appendix I) were sent to non-completers in the study population, requesting information about their reason(s) for enrolling in the prototype course, for not more actively pursuing the course and whether they wished to continue in the course (and pay a \$44.00 course fee). Responses were received from 29 of the 46 potential respondents. Only 3 (10.3%) elected to pay the course fee and continue in the course, 2 (6.9%) indicated they would attempt to finish by a specified date, and 24 (82.8%) chose to officially withdraw from the course. With regard to graduate credit, 7 (25.9%) indicated they would have more actively pursued the course had such credit been offered at the time of their enrollment, 13 (48.1%) said they would not and 3 (11.1%) indicated they were not eligible for such credit.

A variety of reasons were given for persons enrolling in the course. However, the most frequently selected reason was the attractiveness of the material (selected by 19 individuals). Other reasons dealt with a need for the credit or an interest in independent study. The major reason for not com-

pleting the course was the competition for time presented by other activities in which they were involved.

Other Sources of Evaluation Data

The lessons submitted by individual participants, tape recorded meetings submitted by groups, proctored final examinations and unsolicited correspondence provided valuable insight into the operation and effectiveness of the prototype course. Several important factors emerged:

1. Of the individual participants who completed the prototype course, 50% took advantage of the opportunity extended to them to tape record their responses to lessons other than the one in which it was required. Over 50% of these individuals tape recorded more than one response.
2. Two individuals in the Clearfield group were asked to tape record their responses to lesson five and submit them to the course instructor for evaluation. Since neither of these individuals had any direct contact with that individual, they were somewhat fearful of the unknown (both the tape recording itself, and the instructor's response).
3. Several important misconceptions regarding the operation and management of business and industry were discovered in the final examination responses of individuals completing the course.
4. Individuals in the course seemed pleased with the individual attention given them on each lesson, and continue to seek the instructor's counsel after having completed the course (which is a reaction very similar to that of resident students).

5. Several individuals indicated having problems that the resources of the University could help to solve. Resources obtained from the Urban Educational Development Laboratory, the Center for Instructional Research and Curriculum Evaluation, and the Instructional Resources Center at the University of Illinois were sent to several of these individuals.
6. In one part of the course, the instructor's role was reversed, and he was to respond to questions or problems posed by students. This consultive role was well received.

Course Revisions

The prototype course was developed, evaluated and revised while the individuals were actively pursuing the course. This process made it possible to utilize experience gained in the early lessons in the course in the formulation of the later lessons. Specific changes made in the prototype course at the conclusion of the active testing phase of this study include:

1. The addition of the course objectives to the introduction to the course.
2. Changes in the developmental exercises associated with the first four lessons to increase their relevance and make them more interesting.
3. Changes in several developmental exercises to require greater involvement with other individuals in and associated with programs of vocational education.
4. The reading notes in the early lessons were expanded to cover some of the difficulties discovered in the

final examination responses.

5. Increased guidance on the formulation of the one year and five year plans of professional growth and involvement were included.
6. The number of case studies used in the developmental exercises was increased.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Restatement of the Purpose of the Study

It is widely recognized that a teacher's initial professional preparation is no longer adequate, if indeed it ever has been, for a lifelong career. There is a need for inservice education programs to increase the teacher's options, to provide him with the necessary tools, resources, and support, and to relate directly to problems he encounters in his work. The primary responsibility for inservice education must be accepted by each individual vocational educator with support from administrators and inservice teacher educators who have a major responsibility for providing resources, the environment and the time to make continuing education possible.

Inservice education for vocational educators can be divided into two components; a professional or general component, and a special interest or occupational specialty component. The responsibility for inservice education programs is usually assumed to be that of the local program administrator, but in all likelihood the greatest amount of inservice education for vocational educators, outside degree programs, is individually planned, voluntarily pursued and is most likely to be concerned with his or her occupational specialty. The problems related to inservice teacher education in vocational education are in part due to the failure of the profession to identify and train potential leaders at all program levels.

The purpose of this study was to develop, test and revise a course on the topic of leadership development in vocational education to be used on an inservice basis by vocational educators at all program levels. The use of both the individual and group correspondence instruction methods was explored in this study.

Population Description and Study Procedures

The topic for the prototype course, leadership development in vocational education, was selected after a careful examination of a number of possible topics. A set of specifications for the prototype course was identified and used to guide the development of the course objectives, instructional materials and activities, and administrative procedures. The length of the course, credit hour value and number of lessons were determined by the constraints of the grant through which the project was funded and by the research findings related to this topic.

The population to be served by the prototype course encompassed all practitioners whose role in education is totally within or directly related to vocational education. Invitations offering individual vocational educators the opportunity to participate in the testing of the prototype course were sent to 230 persons who were respondents in the national study of the supply and demand factors operating in vocational education conducted by Evans and Wiens (1973), which made use of a stratified random sample of vocational educators. Eleven schools of the more than two-hundred and thirty which participated in the Evans and Wiens (1973) study were selected as potential sites to test and evaluate the prototype course on a group basis as an in-service activity. Invitations offering the opportunity to form a group of up to twelve persons were sent to the vocational directors at each of the eleven schools. Responses were subsequently received from 66 individuals and 4 field schools.

The administrative procedures for handling persons enrolled in the course on an individual basis and persons enrolled on a group basis were different, but conform with guidelines established by the Correspondence Courses Office at the University of Illinois. Each individual who enrolled in the

prototype course for credit, including field school participants, was required to complete one of the final examination options.

The major concern in the development and administration of the prototype course was that instruction of the highest quality be provided to participants in this project through correspondence study on either an individual or group basis. The following quality assurance procedures were built into this study:

1. The course was developed, tested and revised under the guidance of a panel of consultants, each with areas of expertise that helped strengthen the prototype course.
2. Evaluation data were collected from many sources and at many points in this study regarding the quality of the materials, procedures and instruction.

The analysis of data resulting from this study is focused on four main areas: 1) participant characteristics, 2) participant performance, 3) participant evaluation of the course and instructor, and 4) descriptive information related to the course materials and procedures. The population in this study was compared to the national sample of vocational educators established by Evans and Wiens (1973). The final revision of the course materials and procedures was completed after a thorough analysis of the data resulting from this study.

Limitations

This study was conducted under a grant from the U.S. Office of Education and the Division of Vocational and Technical Education for the State of Illinois. The fact that all instructional materials and instructional costs were borne by grant monies rather than participants in the course places limits on the generalizability of the findings from this study.

The fact that most persons invited to enroll in the prototype course developed in this study were eligible for graduate credit, but initially informed that only undergraduate credit would be awarded, may have had an adverse effect on both enrollments and subsequent performance in the course.

The individuals invited to participate in the initial offering of the prototype course were selected on non-random criteria in order to attract individuals who would be likely to enroll in and complete the prototype course.

The time span in which the course was to be completed was very short in comparison to standards usually established for correspondence study and came at a very busy time of year, which may have restricted enrollments and affected performance in the course.

This investigator had neither developed, taken or taught a correspondence course prior to the start of this project.

Findings

Participants were from 32 states and the District of Columbia. They included: 1) the full range of academic backgrounds from no degree through the doctorate level, 2) all occupational specialty areas, 3) ages ranged from early twenties to sixties, 4) most were teachers but a number of administrators and others such as guidance personnel also enrolled, 5) enrollees were employed in secondary, post-high school and state office posts, and 6) both males and females were enrolled.

High school teachers were more likely to enroll in and complete the course than were those in post-high school settings. Trade and industrial educators was the largest group of vocational teachers invited to enroll, but they were proportionately less likely to enroll in and complete the prototype

course than were personnel from other subject areas. Females were somewhat less likely to express an interest in enrolling but were far more likely than males to complete the course if they enrolled, 89.5% compared to 33.9%. Enrollees and completers were more likely to come from non-metropolitan areas, possibly because alternative means of instruction were not available to them. Failure to submit the first lesson was the point at which the highest percentage of persons enrolled in the course discontinued their participation. The mean age of all completers was 39 years; 43 years for individual participants and 36 years for field school participants. All participants were somewhat more likely to hold a higher number of memberships in vocational and general education professional associations than all vocational education teachers. Of the persons enrolled in the prototype course, 88% were eligible for graduate credit. There was no significant difference in the achievement of individuals participating in either of the instructional methods used as measured by final examination scores or course grades. The completers and the population in the Supply and Demand Survey did not differ significantly on other selected personal and employment characteristics investigated, except those used as criteria for selection.

In response to questions concerning the quality of the prototype course, the completers reported: 1) about one-half felt the difficulty level was about right, and the other half felt it was more difficult than on-campus instruction and gave similar responses to the level of difficulty in relation to their own backgrounds, 2) 42% said they would take another correspondence course while 15% said they would not; the other responses were conditional, 3) 85% to 97% of the respondents indicated the course: a. was equal to or better than comparable residence courses on-campus, b. met an important need for the participant, c. could be learned effectively through correspondence study, and d. recommended that additional correspondence courses of this type be developed.

Telephone interviews and a follow-up survey of non-respondents and non-completers seemed to indicate that the assurance of graduate credit at the beginning of the project could have affected their participation in the prototype course. However, the most frequently stated reason for not completing the course was the lack of time due to the competition from other activities. Comments and responses to the course itself may be summarized as:

1. The basic management text was received favorably by participants.
2. The course, as structured, is workable, although a few modifications seem desirable and were made.
3. People from all program levels felt that they could identify with each of the concepts in the course.
4. Persons participating exhibited identifiable changes in behavior through the personalization process of correspondence. A relationship leading from highly impersonal to personal began to emerge between the student and the correspondence study evaluator (instructor).
5. Initially, women did not express as high a rate of interest in the course; however, after enrolling, the completion rate was higher for women than men.

Perhaps the most intriguing finding is that the two groups which studied the materials together for credit were each headed by a local director of vocational education, who reported enthusiastically that this group study provided the best method yet identified for inviting in guidance and administrative personnel in a setting which enhanced his position and that of his department and its programs within the school.

Conclusions

The typical student in this study was much older than the average correspondence student cited by Houle (1965), and was more likely to have had a greater amount of education than those in the studies reported by Donehower (1968), Harter (1969b) and the University of Washington (1970). As was the case in the University of Washington (1970) study, a high percentage of the participants in this study reported that this was their only formal contact with continuing education. The reasons given for enrolling in, not enrolling in and for not completing the prototype course are similar to those found by MacKenzie and Christensen (1971), Ball, et al. (1966), Harter (1969a) and Sloan (1965), with the added dimension of the availability of graduate credit entering this study.

The completion rate for individuals enrolled in the prototype course was high, 75%, and compares favorably with the completion rates reported in the study by Donehower (1968). The rate of non-starts in this study was less than 50%, and is very high compared to the figures supplied by Pfeiffer and Sabers (1972) showing a 20% rate for 2 semester hour courses at the University of Iowa. However, it should be remembered that a tuition and fee waiver, free textbook and other instructional material were supplied to individuals invited to participate in this study, thus encouraging marginally interested individuals to enroll.

The attitudes of the individuals in this study regarding the prototype course were good. Less than 25% were uninterested or neutral toward the course compared to the 36% found in the Anderson and Tippy (1971) study, also conducted at the University of Illinois. The percentage of individuals reporting their course easy in both of these studies were 2% and 11% respectively, indicating that the individuals in this study were more inclined to find the prototype

course difficult than were students in other correspondence courses at the University of Illinois. However, the field school participants indicated in the tape recordings of their group meetings and in the on-site interviews that the reading notes were very helpful in understanding the course concepts and relating them to vocational education. The reading notes were intended to be similar to the input provided by an instructor through a lecture in a resident class setting, and appear to have been effective in that respect.

The achievement of individuals in either of the two instructional methods used did not differ significantly as measured by the final examination in the course, or course grade awarded, which is what the findings on the effectiveness of different methods of college teaching by Dubin and Taveggia (1968) would suggest.

Recommendations for Further Development

The following recommendations are based on experiences gained in carrying out this study and in relating these to the broader needs across the field of vocational education. Recommendations are organized under two broad categories. Within each category, sub-areas are identified with examples of the types of activities that could be carried out. Many of the suggested activities are interrelated and data from each would help identify the parameters of receptivity to and effectiveness of providing inservice professional development to practicing vocational educators through correspondence type materials.

1. Determine the receptivity to and effectiveness of inservice professional development provided through individual and group utilization of correspondence course type materials.

The Leadership Development Course materials, with appropriate modifications, could be used as the common treatment

while a variety of other possible variables are investigated. Examples of the types of investigations that could be made include:

A. The differences in effectiveness of group and individual use of materials.

- 1) quantity and quality of development and use of individual professional development plans
- 2) reported changes in individual roles, instructional program, organizational unit of which participants are a part
- 3) completion rate of course
- 4) range of characteristics of persons participating
- 5) nature of problems and situations chosen for examples in lessons.

B. The evaluation of inservice development activities carried out through correspondence.

- 1) relation of self-reporting to subordinate, peer and supervisor reporting
- 2) comparison of written responses with audio tape and other means of personalization and interaction
- 3) on-site evaluation versus mailed responses
- 4) responses on follow-up compared to end of course responses
- 5) comparison of correspondence results with campus faculty directed classes using the same materials.

C. The differences in characteristics of those vocational educators who participate and do not participate in inservice professional development through correspondence.

- 1) personal and educational characteristics such as prior employment, occupational specialty, nature of position
 - 2) level of employing institution, geographic isolation, other opportunities available, type of person coordinating the group.
- D. The nature of the activities and the reaction of the participants under different types of administrative relationships with the field school coordinator. When the field school coordinator is
- 1) the direct supervisor/administrator of the participants who are from a single department or unit
 - 2) the general supervisor/administrator of the participants who are from several departments or units
 - 3) a peer
 - 4) from another organization or institution, with or without responsibility for the program where participants are employed
 - 5) an employee of the correspondence course sponsor.
- E. The appropriateness and usefulness of the Leadership Development materials to teaching-supervisory personnel in the broad field of vocational education but who are not primarily concerned with the school based instructional program.
- 1) teaching-supervisors in clinically affiliated settings such as in the medical laboratory, practical nursing, radiology, etc.
 - 2) apprentice instructors and apprentice committee members
 - 3) advisory committee members and officers

- 4) supervisors of students in co-op programs
- 5) counselors, principals, state supervisory personnel.

F. The effects of using different procedures in conducting a correspondence course.

- 1) providing different amounts of direction for structuring the field school group sessions
- 2) providing supplemental materials for the field school coordinator; for participants from different backgrounds or settings
- 3) use of very short, simple but relevant lessons in the beginning to increase the completion rate
- 4) using the same or different instructors to respond to different lessons submitted by a single participant
- 5) insertion of strategically placed questions in the reading notes
- 6) varying the nature and extent of responses to submitted lessons
- 7) gaining a commitment to a schedule for responses at the beginning or leaving the schedule open
- 8) varying the size and composition of the groups
- 9) alternating between individual and group modes of instruction

10) the effects of open versus restricted group enrollments.

2. Explorations could be carried out to determine the need and desire for other courses and course modules for inservice professional development to be used on an individual and group basis as a supplement to more traditional and existing approaches. Once the types of

needs and target groups are sufficiently identified, a matrix of course modules could be developed and then development and tryout of the course modules should be initiated on a programmatic basis.

Questions to be answered:

- A. What are the needs and target groups that may be served by this approach?

Surveys could be of assistance at this stage. A national sample of vocational educators has been established, is sufficiently recent and with known characteristics such that it could provide data relevant to existing practices and perceived need.

Stratified samples of other groups such as state office personnel and local directors could be queried relative to the most urgent needs as seen by these groups. For example:

- 1) To what extent do local and state office supervisory and administrative personnel have need for the same or parallel materials in helping to carry out their roles of providing inservice professional development for teachers and others where they have responsibility for such activities?
 - 2) Are there other populations outside vocational education with related needs?
- B. What is the most effective way(s) of preparing the syllabi for the different types of modules to be developed?
- 1) individually
 - 2) team of experts from within vocational education
 - 3) team of experts from a variety of disciplines.

- C. How can the modules best be organized into courses and sequences, and what delivery media and mechanisms are necessary for effective learning and development in the field?
- D. How can these modules be used to help meet needs for revisions in certification procedures?
- E. How can the resulting programs be effectively brought to the attention of the target population and what incentives are there for them to enroll in programs of this type?

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APPENDIX A
INVITATIONS TO PARTICIPATE

1. Individuals
2. Field Schools

Printed on Bureau of Educational Research letterhead
University of Illinois
Urbana, Illinois

February 21, 1973

Recently you participated in a national survey of vocational-technical educators conducted by the Bureau of Educational Research of the University of Illinois. It is expected that more than three thousand persons will have participated in this study before it is completed. Your response and those of your colleagues are greatly appreciated and will contribute significantly to an understanding of the supply and demand factors operating in vocational education, as well as serving as a basis for future program planning and development.

The leadership data from this survey will be used in the second part of this project which involves the development, testing and revision of a correspondence course in leadership development for vocational educators. The purpose of this letter, aside from expressing appreciation for your response to the earlier survey, is to invite you to participate in the testing and evaluation of the correspondence course materials being developed. Should you decide to participate in this part of the project, you would be one of approximately two hundred persons that have been asked to do so.

We are sure that participants will find their experiences in working on this project, and in helping to test these materials, interesting and rewarding. Arrangements have been made to enroll participants in the course for two semester hours of undergraduate credit from the University of Illinois. We submitted a request, that was denied, to have graduate credit awarded to participants who qualify. However, those enrolled in graduate programs should consider petitioning their school to accept this course for graduate credit on the basis that were it completed in residence at the University of Illinois such credit would be awarded. If you choose to participate, but do not wish to receive credit, you can enroll and receive a certificate of completion at the end of the course. To help you decide in favor of participating in this project, you should know that all materials for the course, including the textbook, will be supplied free of charge, and tuition for the course will be waived. The only stipulation is that the eight lessons be completed by June 15, 1973. The contract for this project terminates shortly thereafter with the intervening time to be used in revising the course materials and in writing the final report.

The course introduction and first lesson have been included in this package of materials for you to examine; there will be a total of eight lessons in the course. If you wish to participate in this project, please let us know within one week by returning your completed application form. The textbook and lessons 2, 3 and 4 will be sent to you once this form is received, with the final four lessons being sent at a later date. If circumstances prevent you from participating in this project, but you know of someone else in your school that participated in the earlier national survey, please feel free to pass along this information. We are only able to take a limited number of participants and can only guarantee places for the persons originally invited to participate, but should space be available we would

Page 2

be willing to accept a limited number of other interested persons. We are looking forward to having you as a participant. Please write or phone us if you have any questions.

Sincerely yours,

Rupert N. Evans
Professor of Vocational
and Technical Education

RNE:taj

Enclosures

Printed on Bureau of Educational Research letterhead
University of Illinois
Urbana, Illinois

February 27, 1973

Dear _____:

Recently a number of the members of the vocational and technical education faculty of your school participated in a national survey being conducted by the Bureau of Educational Research of the University of Illinois. While nation-wide the return rate is about 55% at present, your school is above the 57% mark. Your cooperation, and that of your colleagues is greatly appreciated and will be most helpful in identifying the supply and demand factors in operation in the vocational and technical education field.

A second part of this study involves the development, testing and revision of a correspondence course for vocational educators. The purpose for developing such a course is to test this method, on a national basis, as a means of meeting the individualized inservice needs of vocational educators. Over two hundred vocational educators, nation-wide, have been asked to participate in the individual testing and evaluation of these materials.

We are also interested in having these materials tested and evaluated by several schools throughout the nation that would agree to use them for group study, possibly as a part of their inservice program. Since the questionnaires that have been returned from your school indicated that you have a number of faculty members who are interested in continued professional growth, the purpose of this letter is to determine if your school would be interested in being one of five schools which would form a study group from among faculty members to test and evaluate these materials.

I have included for your review the textbook for the course being developed, and a copy of the course introduction and lesson one. The topic for the course, "Leadership Development in Vocational Education," is one that is rarely treated in teacher education programs, but is currently of wide-spread interest in the field. To encourage your school's participation all materials will be provided for persons taking part in this study, including the textbook, at no charge. Additionally, individuals desiring credit (2 semester hrs.) for their participation can make arrangements to do so, and their tuition and fees will be waived. The University of Illinois does not at the present time offer graduate credit for study by correspondence. So, although this course has been developed for use at the graduate level, it can only be taken for undergraduate credit. The graduate college is in the process of reviewing the current policy towards correspondence study, and participants may wish to petition to have credit earned in this program considered as being of graduate level, which it is.

It would be up to you and the members of your faculty to determine how you could best participate in this study. I have listed below some possible modes of participation, and am prepared to discuss further with you others that you might suggest:

1. A group of faculty members (12 maximum) could use the course syllabus as a study guide for a series of inservice meetings (one or two lessons per meeting). The meeting

can be used to discuss the concepts and critique the materials. Individual critiques of the materials, and a recording of each meeting would be sent to the Bureau of Educational Research.

2. Small groups of faculty members (2 or 3 persons) could be assigned several lessons to present to the total group (12 maximum), with a series of meetings being held to cover the entire course. Group critiques of the lessons and tapes of the meeting would be sent to the Bureau of Educational Research.

NOTE: The Bureau of Educational Research will provide the recording tape required for these meetings.

Your only obligation in participating in this study will be to provide us with written critiques of the material and recordings of your meetings. Any other material that you would wish to supply would be greatly appreciated and would be helpful in a more complete analysis of the effectiveness of these materials.

This work is being conducted under a grant from the state of Illinois and the U.S. Office of Education. Your school would be listed as one of the approximately five national test sites for this project and its name would appear in the final report (a copy of which would be sent to you).

If you have questions feel free to write or call the Bureau and ask for me or for Wayne Lockwood. We need your participation in this part of our study and are looking forward to working with you. This project promises to point to a new direction in university involvement in the continuing education of the practitioners in vocational education, outside the traditional structure of degree programs.

Please let me know as soon as possible of your decision by returning the enclosed Response Form in the self-addressed envelope provided.

Sincerely,

Rupert N. Evans
Professor of Vocational
and Technical Education

RNE:sl

Enclosures

APPENDIX B

PROJECT CONSULTANTS

1. List of Consultants
2. Lesson Evaluation Form

LIST OF CONSULTANTS

Dr. Thomas H. Anderson
Assistant Professor
Educational Psychology
University of Illinois

Dr. Rupert N. Evans
Professor
Vocational and Technical Education
University of Illinois

Dr. R. Stewart Jones
Professor
Educational Psychology
University of Illinois

Dr. Henry J. Sredl
Associate Professor
Vocational and Technical Education
University of Illinois

Mr. Paul H. Tippy
Director
Correspondence Courses
University of Illinois

Lesson No.	_____
Revision No.	_____
Evaluator	_____

LESSON EVALUATION FORM

Directions: Beneath each of the elements below are criteria for evaluating that element. Rate each element on each criterion that applied to a given lesson by circling a value on the scale provided. Add criteria and comments as needed. Scale values are:

4 = acceptable, retain in present form

3 = acceptable, but some modification would be O.K.

2 = some modification is needed

1 = major modification is needed

LESSON ELEMENTS

1. Objectives:

Comments: (use the back if needed)

clarity	4	3	2	1
attainability	4	3	2	1
completeness	4	3	2	1
consistent with course objectives	4	3	2	1
appropriate for student needs	4	3	2	1

2. Overview:

provides for review	4	3	2	1
clarifies topic	4	3	2	1
complete	4	3	2	1
relates topic to course	4	3	2	1
interesting	4	3	2	1
length	4	3	2	1

3. Reading Assignment:

Comments:

length	4	3	2	1
difficulty	4	3	2	1
relation to topic	4	3	2	1

4. Reading Notes:

clarity	4	3	2	1
helpfulness	4	3	2	1
correctly interprets textbook	4	3	2	1

5. Assignment:

appropriate course activity	4	3	2	1
contributes to lesson objectives	4	3	2	1
length	4	3	2	1

RELATED ELEMENTS

1. Graphics or Illustrations:

clarity	4	3	2	1
helpfulness	4	3	2	1

2. Lesson Continuity and Scope:

clearly related to other topics	4	3	2	1
in proper sequence	4	3	2	1
amount of material	4	3	2	1
appropriate to student level	4	3	2	1

3. Other General Comments:

APPENDIX C

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

1. Letter
2. Resume Lockwood
3. Resume Grabb

March 7, 1973

Dear Vocational Educator,

Lessons two and three are being sent to you with this letter. A large binder is also included to hold the entire set of lessons for the course. If you have not yet received the textbook for the course, let me know immediately and I will see that you get one soon. A book was sent to you when we received your application and should have arrived four to ten days later.

You are now a member of a group of distinguished vocational educators from most program areas and all administrative levels of vocational education. Current enrollments indicate that representative from 20 states and the District of Columbia are participating in this project.

Since this course and the method of teaching this course are new to me, and probably new to you as well, we can share the experience of learning and discovery that is always a part of a new venture. The content of the course is such that we can teach each other and the method will permit us to get to know one another well. I hope you will take every opportunity to tell me about yourself and your experiences, particularly as they relate to the course. I'm sure that in our interactions you will discover much about me as well.

A number of lesson ones have already been returned for marking. They have been quite good. It is interesting that in many of them the person was reluctant to be specific about the activities in the one year and five year plans for personal development. It is not necessary that the plans give dates, places and times. It would be helpful if they specified types of activities, levels of involvement and approximate time schedule (plus or minus three years). Obviously you will not be able to predict when you will be elected or appointed to some office, but most activities occur on a regular enough basis to make planning possible. Most of the plans submitted up to this time have been short, but very realistic. This plan is important and will be referred to at several points in the course. If you are one of the persons that have submitted lesson one, you are at the head of the class. If you are not, you are only a short lesson away from being at the head of the class.

I am looking forward to hearing from you soon and working with you in this course.

Sincerely,

Wayne N. Lockwood
EPDA Fellow

Name: Wayne Nelson Lockwood, Jr.

Date of Birth: November 1, 1941

Address: 26 Delaine Drive
Normal, Illinois 61761

Current Position: EPDA Fellow in Vocational and Technical Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois; and Assistant Professor of Industrial Technology, Illinois State University, Normal, Illinois (Employed at Illinois State since 1969, on leave for the 1972-1973 school year).

<u>Former Positions</u>	<u>Place</u>	<u>Dates</u>
Assistant Professor II	Dept. of Industrial Education and Technology, Trenton State College, New Jersey	1967-69
Instructor	Engineering Graphics Purdue University	1966-67 and 64-65
Teacher	Jefferson Junior High School Valparaiso, Indiana	1965-66

Formal Education:

B.S. (1964) and M.S. (1967)	Purdue University, W. Lafayette, Indiana (Industrial Education)	
Graduate Study	Illinois State University, Normal, Illinois	1968-70
Doctoral Study	University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois	1970-73

Activities:

Attended, NDEA Computer Graphics Institute (at Illinois State University, summer of 1968); Member of Board of Directors, Delaware Valley Design and Drafting Council, (Philadelphia, 1968-69); Director, Computer Graphics Institute for Vocational Educators (Trenton State College, N.J., summer 1969); Program Chairman, Illinois State Technical Drafting Teachers Association (1971-72).

Name: Larry Edward Grabb

Date of Birth: February 15, 1945

Address: 107 East Healy, #16
Champaign, Illinois 61820

Current Position: Research Assistant, Bureau of Educational Research,
University of Illinois. Counselor, University of Illinois
Residence Halls and Chanute Air Force Base.

<u>Former Positions</u>	<u>Place</u>	<u>Dates</u>
Teacher (full-time substitute)	Champaign County School District (secondary schools - vo-tech.)	1971-1972
Associate	Roby and Roby Real Estate Decatur, Illinois	1970-1971
Transportation Officer	U.S. Army Cape Kennedy, Florida and Pusan, Korea	1968-1970

Formal Education:

B.S.	University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois (Commerce - Management)
M.Ed.	University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois (Higher Education - Student Personnel Services)
Graduate Study	University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois (Counseling)

Activities:

University of Illinois Higher Education Society. Board of Directors, Decatur, Illinois Chapter American Business Club (1970-71). Projects Chairman, Jaycees (1970).

APPENDIX D
TELEPHONE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

NON-RESPONDENT TELEPHONE FOLLOW-UP

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

1. Did you receive an invitation to participate?

YES

NO

2. What was your initial reaction?

3. Is there, perhaps, one specific reason you can put your finger on, why you did not plan to take advantage of this opportunity at that time?

4. Are there any comments you would care to make concerning the correspondence course as you see it, or any other questions that we may answer?

5. Did the fact that graduate level credit was not offered affect your response?

6. Allow me to verify the mailing address we have for you.

7. Even though it's too late to take the course at this time, would you be interested in receiving a free copy of the materials?

APPENDIX E
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR ON-SITE VISITS

- 1. Schedule**
- 2. Visitation Team Members**

VISITATION TEAM MEMBERS

	Freeport, Illinois	Clearfield, Utah	Danbury, Connecticut
Rupert N. Evans Professor of Vocational and Technical Education University of Illinois			X
Arthur J. Boynton Administrative Assistant Bureau of Educational Research University of Illinois	X		X
Larry E. Grabb Research Assistant Bureau of Educational Research University of Illinois	X	X	
Wayne N. Lockwood EPDA Fellow Bureau of Educational Research University of Illinois	X	X	X

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR ON-SITE VISITATIONS

1. Has your experience in this project been meaningful? In what way(s)?
2. Would you be interested in participating in future programs of this nature? On a group basis? On an individual basis?
3. How did you decide upon participating in this project? Is this approximately the same way the other members of the group arrived at their decision to participate?
4. What is the principal value of this course to you? To your vocational program? To your school? To your profession?
5. How does this course compare to other courses you have completed as a resident graduate or undergraduate student? Is it more or less difficult? In what ways is it of higher or lower quality?
6. What has been the reaction of the other participants in your group to this project? To the materials?
7. What is the biggest difficulty you have encountered in working on this project?
8. In your present assignment, are you doing anything differently as a result of this experience?
9. What type of support have you received for your participation? Enthusiastic? From group members? From peers? Administrators? Has there been any pressure placed on you?
10. What other types of programs, if any, would you be interested in seeing offered by this method?
11. What recommendations do you have that would strengthen this course, or the administrative procedures being used?
12. About how much preparation time do you spend in getting ready for group meetings? How does this compare with time spent on college courses you have taken? More, less, etc.?
13. Do you discuss this project with others? Participants? Non-participants? About how often and how much time?
14. How does this program differ from your regular inservice program? Quality? Interest? Value?
15. How has the program affected your career plans for the future?
16. Is there something you would like to discuss, but haven't had the opportunity?

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR ON-SITE VISITATIONS
(continued)

Questions asked by external evaluator:

17. Has this experience been a valuable way to spend your time? Why or why not?
18. Have your working relationships with the other members of your group changed? How?
19. Has the rapport between your group and the project staff been good? How might it have been improved?
20. What is your judgement of the quality of the project staff? (Compare with other graduate level instructors with whom you have worked, and with your ideal instructor).

APPENDIX F
VOTEC X349 EVALUATION FORM

VOTEC x349 EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Directions: Please circle one response to each of the questions on the following pages. If you have additional comments on any of the items, please put them on the back of sheet with the questions on it (indicate that you have made such a comment beside the question). Do this only for the BUFF colored questionnaire. The answer sheet is to be used for the WHITE questionnaire.

1. Are you eligible to receive graduate credit for your participation in this course? (e.g., you have a baccalaureate degree from an accredited college or university).

YES NO

NOTE: If your response to the above was YES make all following comparisons with regard to graduate level courses and programs, unless otherwise specified. If your response was NO, then use your undergraduate experience as the basis for your comparisons.

2. How does the instruction you have received compare with resident courses you have taken?
3. With the instruction in the best resident courses of which you are aware?
4. Approximately how much time did you spend (on the average) preparing each lesson, or preparing for each session?

Of much higher quality	Of slightly higher quality	About the same quality	Of slightly lower quality	Of much lower quality
1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5

5. How does your preparation time for this course compare with other resident courses you have taken?

1 2 3 4 5

6. With the BEST resident courses of which you are aware?

1 2 3 4 5

Much more difficult Slightly more difficult About the same Slightly less difficult Much less difficult

7. How does the difficulty of this course compare with resident courses you have taken?

1 2 3 4 5

8. With the BEST resident courses of which you are aware?

1 2 3 4 5

9. What is the name of the institution(s) you are using as the basis for your comparison?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

10. Have you discussed this course with

a) other educators

1 2

b) other individuals or groups

1 2 (Specify) _____

One of interest Not interested Neutral Couldn't be determined

c) If applicable, what was their reaction?

1 2 3 4

11. How does the value of this course compare with the value gained in your school's regular inservice program?
- | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|---|------------------------|---|----------------|---|------------------------|---|--------------------|---|
| Much less valuable | 1 | Slightly less valuable | 2 | About the same | 3 | Slightly more valuable | 4 | Much more valuable | 5 |
|--------------------|---|------------------------|---|----------------|---|------------------------|---|--------------------|---|
12. With the BEST inservice program of which you are aware?
- | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
13. Do the topics in this course meet an important need in vocational education?
- | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
14. Do the topics in this course meet important professional needs for you?
- | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|
15. Can the course topics be effectively taught through the correspondence study method?
- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|
16. Would you recommend that additional courses be offered by this method? (Specify)
- | | | |
|-----|----|-----------|
| YES | NO | UNDECIDED |
| 1 | 2 | 3 |
17. What do you believe to be the most outstanding feature of this course? (Specify)
-
18. Least outstanding feature? (Specify)
-

19. Should graduate credit be awarded to individuals completing this course (provided they are eligible for such credit)?

YES, this course is superior to most courses I have taken

UNDECIDED

NO, this course is inferior to most courses I have taken

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Very beneficial Somewhat helpful Undecided Not at all helpful

20. Was the use of tape recorded responses to lesson 5 beneficial to your understanding of the course concepts?

1 2 3 4

APPENDIX G
REVISED COURSE SYLLABUS

University of Illinois
Correspondence Courses
Division of University Extension
Champaign, Illinois

LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT IN
VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

VOTEC x349

Wayne N. Lockwood

Department of
Vocational and Technical Education
and
Bureau of Educational Research

ASSIGNMENTS: Eight (8)

SEMESTER HOURS OF CREDIT: Graduate - 1½ Unit (2 sem. hrs.)
Undergraduate - 2 sem. hrs.

TEXT: Cribbin, James J. Effective Managerial Leadership.
American Management Association, Inc. (New York:
MacMillan Company), 1972.

Leadership Development in Vocational Education

INTRODUCTION

Effective leadership in vocational education is a necessary and complex phenomenon. Effective and ineffective leadership can easily be identified. The problem facing those concerned with developing leaders and those aspiring to improve their leadership skills is the determination of what makes one person an effective leader and another an ineffective leader. Every individual has leadership potential that could emerge in a given situation. Every situation is different, so that a leadership style that was successful in the past may be inappropriate in the present or some future situation.

The following general notions about leadership development will help you understand the intent of this course:

1. Effective leadership is no accident. Business and industry have invested large amounts of human and financial resources in the development of the leadership qualities of their personnel. Preparation alone is no guarantee that a person will become a leader, but it does develop a pool of potential talent from which positions requiring leadership personnel may be filled.
2. Effective leaders have a thorough understanding of their personal limitations. Their decisions in a given situation are based on their analysis of the situation and how they can best respond to it given personal strengths and weaknesses. Effective leaders also have the ability to analyze the strengths and weaknesses of those with whom they work. When you consider that leaders must work through others in achieving organizational goals, this ability is one of their greatest assets.
3. An effective leader is a person who understands how an organization functions and what the organization is attempting to accomplish. Understanding and working within many educational organizations is made more complex and difficult because of the dual structure that results from the separation of vocational education from the rest of the educational program. Leaders in vocational education must be able to work through many such organizations if they are to be effective.

It is the intent of this course to help you better analyze your leadership qualities and those of others and to see how they relate to your position in vocational education. Leadership is required and is important at all levels of vocational education. Whether you are a teacher, an administrator or a counselor you have a leadership role in the profession and a responsibility to contribute to the leadership being provided by others. This course is designed to help you understand your role and how it relates to other similar, or different roles.

In the context of this course, the term "vocational education" will be used to mean vocational, technical and occupational education. The materials should be equally appropriate for persons in administration, teaching or coordination at all levels of vocational education. It is expected that the

emphasis required for a health occupations teacher at the community college level would be different from that required for a vocational director in a comprehensive high school. The reading materials are generally applicable to all areas and levels of vocational education, with the responsibility left to you to decide what is appropriate for your situation. The assignments at the end of each lesson afford you an opportunity to apply the course concepts to your particular situation.

From the very start of this course you should begin thinking of yourself as a leader or as one capable of becoming a leader! Cribbin, the author of the text used in the course, provides the following definition of leadership:

Leadership can be described as a process of influence on a group in a particular situation, at a given point in time, and in a specific set of circumstances that stimulates people to strive willingly to attain organizational objectives, giving them the experience of helping attain the common objectives and satisfaction with the type of leadership provided (p. 9).

The major difference between this definition and what is commonly believed to be true about leadership is the emphasis on influence rather than authority as the basis for achieving cooperative effort in goal attainment. Developing an understanding of the influence leaders have on individuals, groups and organizations is a major theme of this course. Such a study can encompass the influence a teacher has on an administrator or on his students, it could include an administrator's influence on his peers, teachers or school board members. The possible application of the concepts of this course to practice are clearly without limits.

Industry and business have committed considerable effort and resources to programs directed towards the development of the leadership potentials of members of their organizations. It is upon their experience that we will be drawing most of the material for this course. One reason this is possible is the similarity that exists between the organizational structures in industry, business and education; all are bureaucratic.

Bureaucracies seem to be a natural outgrowth of industrialization. Your experience with this type of institution may cause you to view with disfavor anything or anyone that is associated with a bureaucracy, even though you are probably a member of one. Look at a dictionary definition of bureaucracy. You should find two distinct definitions. One supports the general proposition that bureaucracies are inefficient, red-tape creating organizations. The other, in neutral terms, indicates that a bureaucracy is a way of organizing people to accomplish organizational goals. A bureaucracy does not by definition have to be "evil," even though enough people view it that way to have it included as a definition in most dictionaries.

The whole point of this discussion is that the administrative-organizational patterns that resulted from industrialization have been largely imitated in the educational, business and governmental sectors of our society. Because of the similarity in administrative structure it is possible to look at administrative

techniques, leadership styles and other organizational factors in one sector (industrial) and then modify them to fit in the other sectors (i.e., education), understanding that major differences in the goals and processes of each exist.

It is with this in mind that a management textbook was selected to present the concepts to be used in the development of vocational education leadership. You should find that many, if not most, of the ideas in the text are directly related to your role in vocational education and can be, with practice, translated into strategies for improved vocational educational leadership.

Several comments on the text are in order. First, the book is well written. The author has a very enjoyable style and a wry sense of humor. It will be helpful to have a dictionary close by when you read it because he occasionally uses unfamiliar words or terms. Second, the concepts of managerial leadership presented in the book represent a compilation of some of the best thinking that has been done to date on this topic. The author has done a good job of putting it together in an understandable, useable form. Finally, the complete treatment given managerial leadership in the text lends itself very well to translation into the vocational educational setting. As you read the book and as we present the lessons, our common objective should be to ask ourselves: what does this mean for me? for vocational education?

There is always a tendency for educators, when comparing the functions of education with those performed by other sectors of society, to stress the differences that exist. The emphasis in this course will be on the similarities between education and business, industry and government in the skills and characteristics each find desirable in leadership personnel. This course is designed to help you discover that the educational bureaucracy is really not so unique!

Course Objectives

The general objectives used to guide the development of the materials and procedures used in this course are:

1. The course should be useful to practitioners who aspire to provide more effective leadership in their present role, or in some future role for which they are preparing, within vocational education.
2. The course is designed to allow a maximum amount of administrative flexibility while at the same time insuring that high standards of academic and instructional quality are maintained. The course, while open to both graduate and undergraduate students, is designed to be a graduate course and of maximum relevance to individuals who are practicing vocational educators.
3. The course is designed to require each individual to apply the important concepts related to leadership in his or her role as a vocational educator.

The general objectives for the course were then translated into the following more specific objectives that described behavior expected of individuals completing the course.

Upon completing this course the student will be able to:

1. Understand the concept of leadership by
 - a. defining leadership in terms of its meaning and relationship to his or her current position
 - b. analyzing the leadership qualities possessed by other vocational education personnel
 - c. describing the important conditions in a given situation that influence and often determine the patterns of leadership that will be effective
2. Describe his or her potential for leadership by
 - a. identifying his or her personal strengths and weaknesses
 - b. outlining a program of personal development that reflects his or her professional needs
 - c. identifying a pattern of leadership that would seem to best fit his or her personal style of working with others
3. Describe effective leadership strategies for working within organizations by
 - a. describing the informal and formal lines of authority and communication within an organization (school, community or professional group)
 - b. analyzing his or her role in the organization
 - c. describing contributions other members of the organization make to the leadership of the organization
4. Use the leadership concepts developed in the course as a basis for analyzing
 - a. further works in the area of leadership development
 - b. the quality of his or her present participation in the leadership of vocational education
 - c. the progress made in efforts to improve his or her leadership skills

Lesson Components

Each lesson will consist of an overview of the lesson, a reading assignment, a set of reading notes for each chapter and a set of developmental exercises. Since the major focus of the course is to improve your understanding of leadership and to translate this understanding into practice, all lessons and developmental exercises are directed toward those ends.

Overview: The purpose of the overview is to provide you with a general introduction to the topic to be presented in the lesson. It also includes a brief review of concepts from past lessons that are relevant to the topic to be examined. Material and concepts from sources outside the text will be included in this part of the lesson.

Reading Assignments: The reading assignments will be primarily from the textbook. The reading assignments may appear to be short, but each is packed with material. A list of additional readings related to each lesson is appended to the course syllabus with additional references to be found in the textbook. When available, these readings should be sampled to gain a more complete picture or new perspective on the concepts under investigation.

Reading Notes: The reading notes are designed to serve three purposes. First, they help to identify many of the important concepts in each chapter. Second, they are designed to cut-down on the number of notes you will need to take as you read. A margin to the right of the reading notes will allow you to add any comments that you feel will make them more personally useful. Finally, the most important purpose of the notes is to provide an example of how the concepts of managerial leadership can be applied to vocational education leadership.

Developmental Exercises: The developmental exercise part of each lesson will generally have two components. The first component will be to determine your understanding of the concepts presented in the lesson. The second will help to determine the extent to which you are able to translate the concepts into or to observe them in practice. The balance between understanding and practice varies from one lesson to the next with observation and practice becoming increasingly important as the course progresses.

If there is any part of a lesson that is unclear to you, or if you have questions related to the topic, course or procedures being followed, dash off a note with your concerns to your instructor. He is there to help you, so take advantage of his expertise!

Course Topics

This course will consist of eight lessons. Each lesson will cover one of the following topics:

- Leadership in perspective
- Factors related to leadership
- Patterns of leadership
- Leader-subordinate relations
- Communications and leadership
- Leadership problems and ethics
- Leadership and change
- Leadership and professionalism in vocational education

Cognitive Maps

Cognitive maps have been included as part of this course to help you orient yourself at any point in your studies. The cognitive map on page 8 identifies the major concepts (topics) in the course and their relationship to each other. The interpretation of the map is that the lesson of "Leadership in Perspective" ought to be studied first, followed by lessons 2, 3, and 4. However, the remaining four lessons may be submitted in any order, with the order outlined in the syllabus representing the most desirable sequence.

Introduction (Continued)

Important supporting concepts have been clustered under the major concepts in the map. At the beginning of each lesson is a detailed cognitive map of that lesson. Using the lesson maps and course map should help you to view the course as a whole as you cover the individual elements.

Course Evaluation

The developmental exercises you submit will be graded by the instructor assigned to you for this course, and then returned. While it is understandable that most individuals are concerned with the grade they hope to earn in the course, a much better approach would be to seek to derive maximum benefit from this unique learning opportunity and let the grade take care of itself. The comments placed on your lessons by your instructor are intended to provide you with encouragement, guidance and constructive criticism to help you improve the contribution you are making to vocational education.

In addition to completing the eight lessons, each individual enrolled in this course must complete one of the options described below to receive credit for the course. Individuals qualified for graduate credit should complete either option 1 or 2. Undergraduates may select from among options 1, 2, or 3. Individuals desiring a certificate of completion may select any of the options.

- Option 1: Complete a one hour proctored final examination on the course concepts and submit a term paper, not to exceed eight type-written double spaced pages (regular margins). The final examination would contain all objective items and count towards one-third of the course grade. The term paper must be on a topic related to the course concepts and approved by the instructor (see option 3 for suggestions). It will count as one-third of the course grade. The final one-third of the grade will be determined by the quality of the developmental exercises submitted as a part of each lesson.
- Option 2: Complete a two hour, proctored final examination covering the course concepts. The examination would be essay and would contain questions similar to those in the developmental exercises in each lesson. Individuals will be allowed some freedom in the selection of the questions to which they respond (e.g., select four questions from a list of eight). The course grade will be primarily based on the final examination, with consideration given to the quality of the work submitted in the lessons.
- Option 3: Complete a term paper, similar to the one described in option 1, not to exceed twelve pages. The course grade will be based on this paper, with consideration given to the quality of the work done on the lessons.

Suggestions:

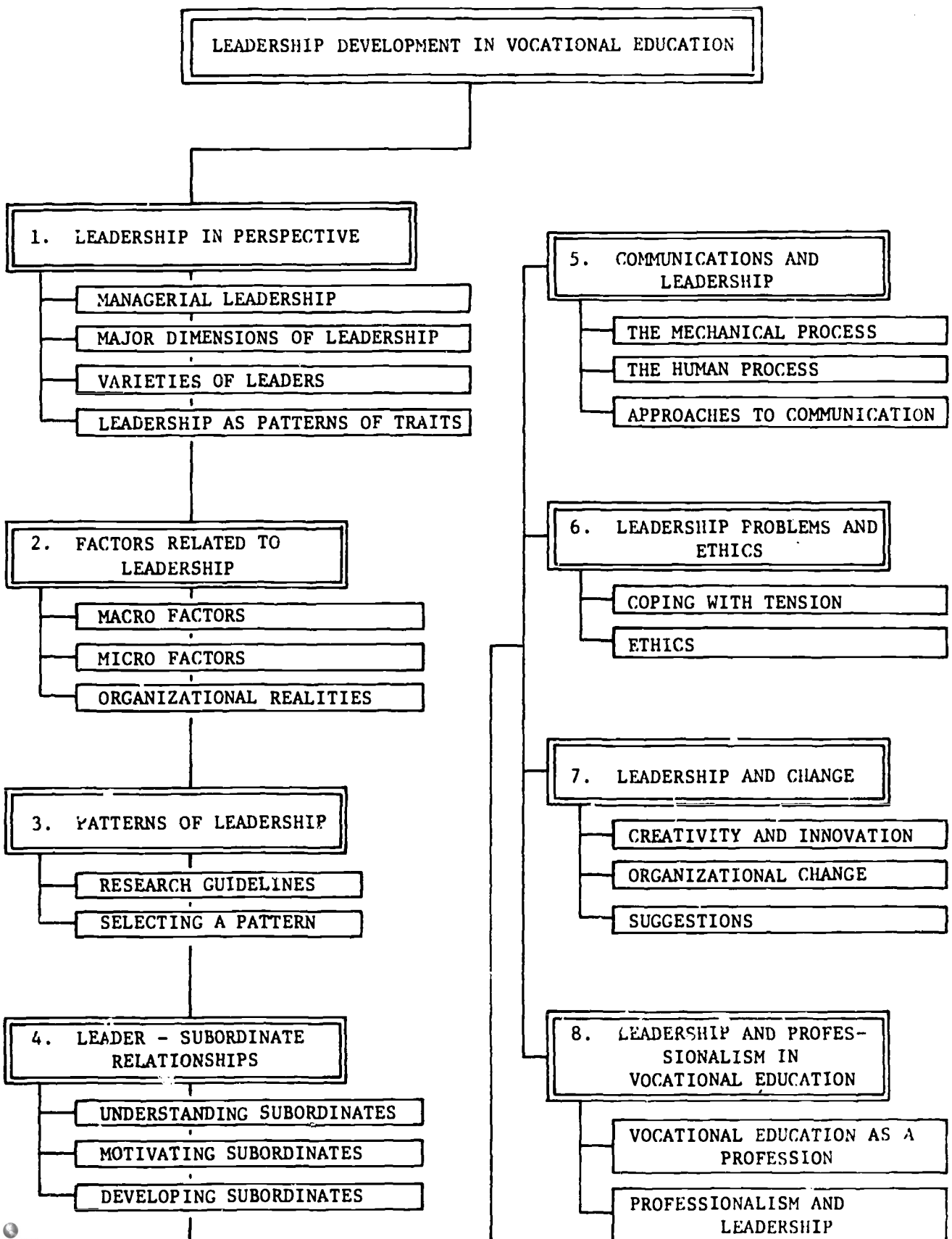
- A. An individual may review a book, such as Up the Organization, The Peter Principle, Parkinson's Law or one of his

or her choosing, critiquing it on the basis of the concepts studied in this course.

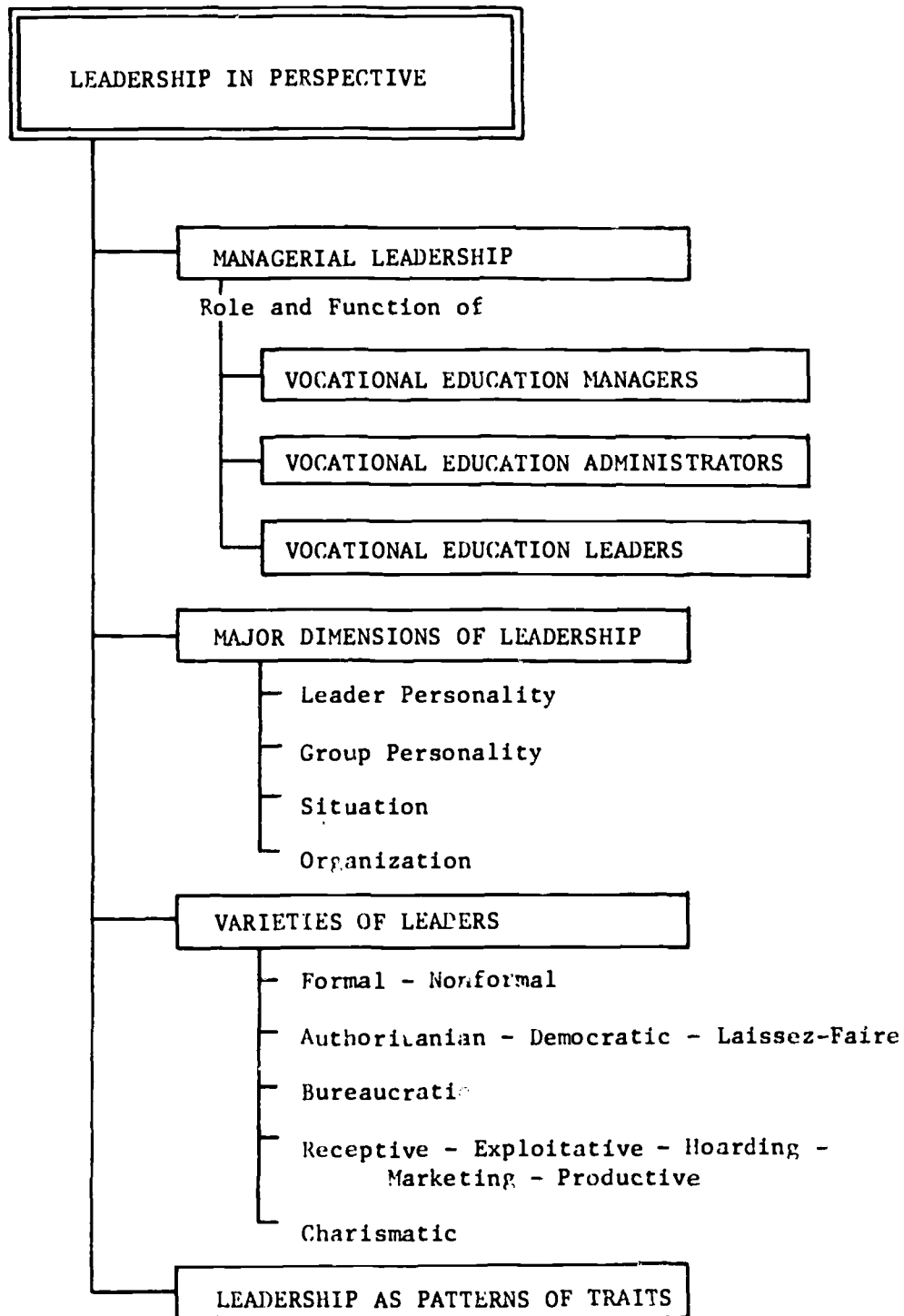
- B. An individual may report on some leadership activity that he or she is engaged in, illustrating how the course concepts are being applied.
- C. An individual may suggest alternate ways of satisfying this requirement that will involve them in meaningful experiences related to this course, while at the same time permitting an evaluation of his or her grasp of the course concepts (beyond that which can be determined by examination).

Option 4: Complete either the examination or the term paper described in option 1.

If you have any questions, or wish further information about the course please write to the address provided in the "Foreword to the Student." Otherwise, you are ready to proceed with the first lesson in the course.



LESSON ONE



LESSON ONE

Special Materials: Order a copy of the State Plan for Vocational Education in your state. It will be used in a later lesson.
Have your dictionary handy!

Objectives: Upon completion of this assignment you should be able to:

- ...analyze the strengths and weaknesses of the leadership model developed for use in this course as it applies to your situation
- ...differentiate between management, administration and leadership
- ...develop a short range and long range program of personal and professional development, taking account of your unique leadership potentials

Overview:

In this first lesson we will be introducing many of the concepts that are to be developed more fully in later lessons. Our first concern will be the identification of the similarities and the differences between managers, leaders, educators and administrators. Since the focus of this course is leadership, Figure 1 was developed to simplify some of the complex relationships that are involved. While this illustration may oversimplify the concept it is to represent, it clearly identifies the most important relationships and the essential six elements that must be included in a study of leadership.

Figure 2 was developed to help you better understand the functions of management and is designed so that comparisons between the functions of management and the functions of leadership can be made easily. A careful analysis of the leadership model (Fig. 1) and the management model (Fig. 2) should lead you to the conclusion that all vocational educators are both leaders and managers! In fact, as Figure 2 indicates, leadership is but one of the ten functions considered to be a part of the responsibilities of managers. It is therefore reasonable to view both leadership and management as occurring in the same context; as has been done in Figures 1 and 2.

The leadership model is similar to the management model for a number of other reasons, many of which will become clearer as the course develops. However, the most significant difference between the two models is the type of relationship that exists between the elements of each and the sources of power. In the management model, power and authority are features of the organization and are present in all its relationships with the work group. The executives or board of directors delegate to management the power and authority needed to achieve the goals of the organization. An individual occupying a position in management assumes the responsibilities, authority and power that is associated with that position; and retains them only so long as he is in that position.

The recent union activity in education might lead one to believe that the work group is also a center of power. Unions and professional associations have

THE LEADERSHIP NETWORK

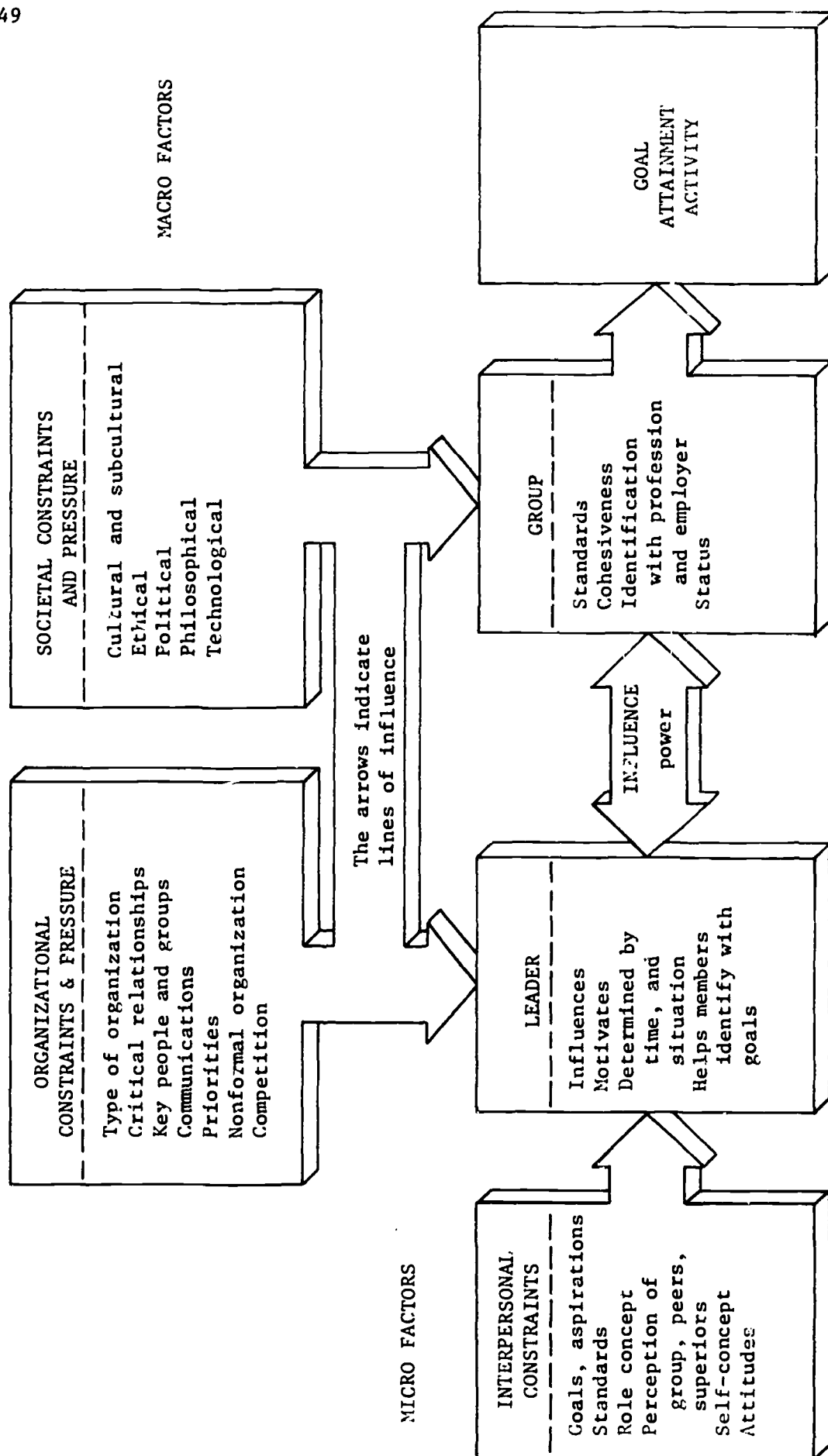


FIGURE 1

THE MANAGERIAL NETWORK

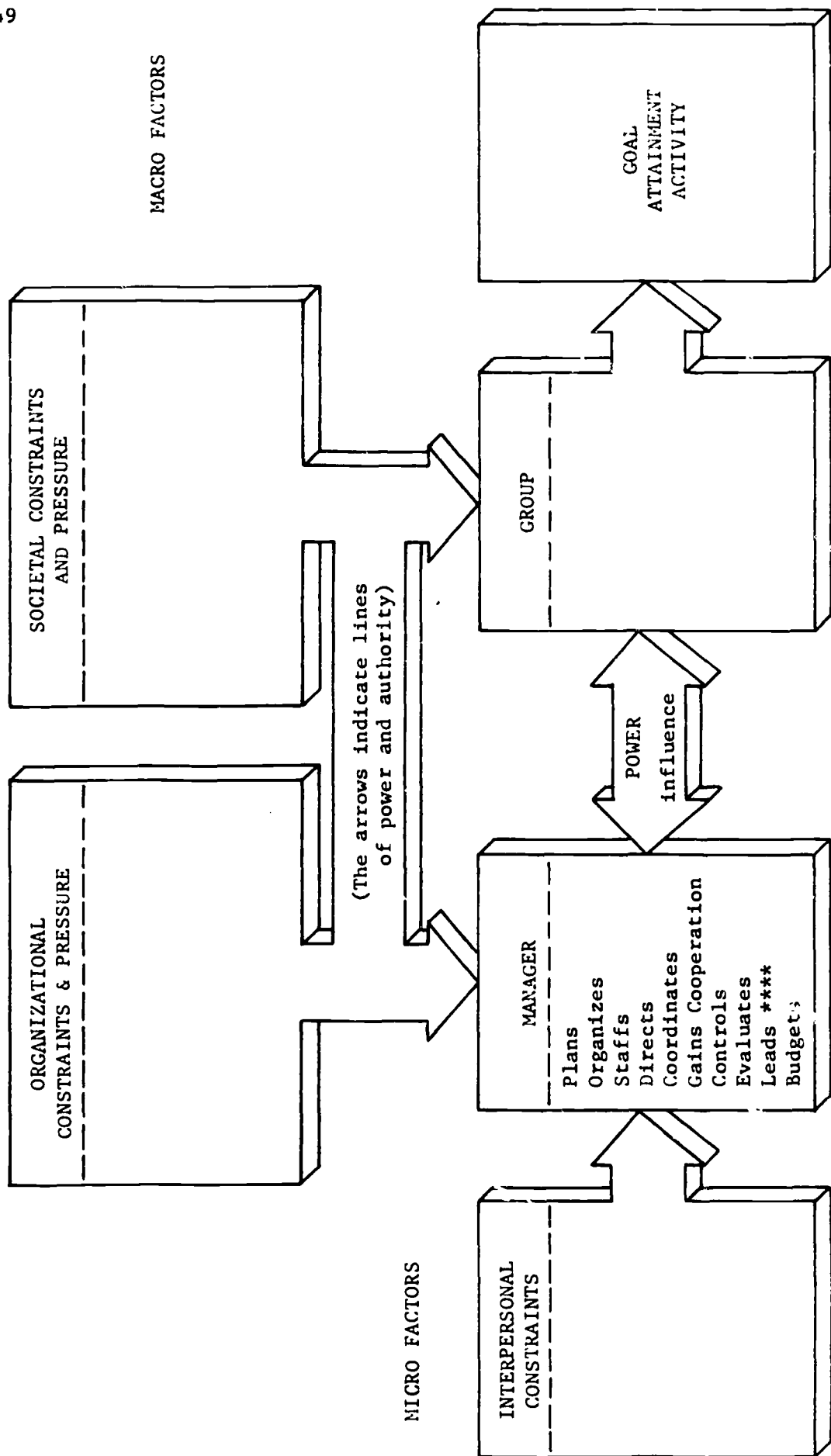


FIGURE 2

been very effective in pressing for demands in behalf of teachers and other school personnel. However, unions and professional associations are external organizations that apply their pressure to the administrative levels of the school system. They are not under the control of management but often are influential in shaping the relationships between management and the work group although they seldom become directly involved in these relationships.

Power and authority in the leadership model (Fig. 1) is centered in the group. The relationships that take place among the elements of this model are primarily based on influence. The group selects its leaders, influences and is influenced by them and has the power to withdraw its support at anytime. The group leader and the manager assigned to the group do not need to be the same individual!

The author of the text correctly identifies leadership as a single, but important, element of management. Many persons equate management with leadership because in most situations they are synonymous. In fact, in all situations, the integration of the two is superior to having them separated, and possibly in competition. By separating leadership from management for the purposes of analysis we should be in a position to better understand some of the problems that confound many school and community organizations. We are not suggesting that an understanding of leadership necessarily provides the solution to these problems, but its potential for suggesting solutions ought not be overlooked. An understanding of leadership will require you to have a better understanding of yourself, of your leadership potential, and of how that potential can best be utilized. Therein lies the solution to many of the problems of education, and to the more effective use of the leadership potentials possessed by every educator!

Look at the leadership model again (Fig. 1). Can you find where a leader must be an officer or executive in an organization? Group members can easily fit this model of leadership. As a teacher or former teacher, you can easily recognize how some students have influenced and motivated you and their fellow classmates, how they have helped others identify with the goals of the class, and how they have even pitched in to see that other classmembers got greater satisfaction out of a given class situation. If you accept this example as evidence that students can and do exhibit leadership behavior, then it follows that leadership behavior can be exhibited at all other levels of vocational education, including the level you now occupy. It is important to note that the leadership being provided by the student in this example is not in competition with the leadership being provided by the teacher. Rather, it is in support of the teacher's leadership and should serve to enhance the teacher's image as a leader, provided a spirit of cooperation exists.

For vocational education to function properly each of us must perform many of the functions associated with business and industrial managers (Fig. 2). The major difference between business and industrial management and vocational education management results from the objectives each is attempting to achieve. While business and industry might be concerned with maintaining or gaining a competitive edge or with increasing profit, vocational education is concerned with increasing the occupational opportunities open to students through occupational skill development and, at the same time, helping to meet society's need

for trained manpower. The goals of each are more complex than this description indicates, but goals are the major difference in management in each of these areas.

It might be argued that the task of the business or industrial manager is less difficult than that of the educational manager because his goals are better defined, the outcomes can be objectively measured and he has greater control over the process leading from goal definition to goal attainment. In contrast, the teacher charged with classroom management is often subjected to many ambiguous, even conflicting organization goals and must then measure the attainment of each goal. The process by which one moves from goal definition to goal attainment in education is not as well understood or as easily manipulated as are industrial or business processes. However, the need for leaders to work with and through other people characterizes all areas and provides the basis for using a management textbook in this course.

In both the management and the leadership networks it is essential to work through other people to attain organizational objectives. If administrators choose to drive the work group in pursuit of goal attainment they are forced into using a strictly management pattern, with its reliance on power and authority. On the other hand, if they attempt to lead the work group in its goal attainment activities they will have the option of selecting the best elements from both patterns. The ideal situation is one where the group leader is also the group manager. Authority, power and influence can all be concentrated on the attainment of organizational goals rather than expended in efforts to resolve personnel problems that can result from the separation of leadership and management.

One final thought on leadership. The Adult Education Association (1959) and Michelson (1970) identify leaders as persons with high standards for themselves and for the group they seek to lead. The establishment of high personal and group standards is the basis for all human progress. Having set high standards, leaders then undertake programs of self-development to meet the self-imposed standards. The self-discipline of leaders is much stricter than that they would expect from others. The need for leaders to get things done through other persons makes it imperative that the leader set an example that can serve as a model for the group. A leader must be willing to serve and support as well as lead.

One of the most important activities in which you will participate in this course will be the development of a short-range and a long-range plan of personal and professional growth and involvement. A major portion of the course is directed toward helping you understand the relationship between these plans and leadership in vocational education. The rest is up to you!

Reading Assignment:

Cribbin: Preface, Chapter 1 and Chapter 2. (NOTE: You may want to review the Reading Notes that follow each lesson before you read the text).

Developmental Exercises:

In short, concise statements respond to the items below. Where appropriate, draw upon your personal experiences as well as the readings. "High-voltage" verbage is not required. Get right to the point of your response. The questions or items need not be written on your paper. Use a conversational style of writing and we'll both find greater enjoyment in the assignment. Relax, there are no right or wrong answers. Remember, leave a two (2) inch margin on the left side of each sheet and double space if you type your responses (which would be nice of you, but not essential). Be sure to respond to all parts of each question.

1. In your own words, describe your concept of leadership.
 - a. How does your concept differ from that offered by Cribbin?
 - b. Is the leadership model consistent with your definition of leadership? Explain.
2. Identify three characteristics that business, industrial and educational leaders share.
 - a. Can these characteristics be acquired by individuals not now possessing them? Explain.
 - b. Leaders in which area of society have the greatest need for these characteristics (i.e., business, industry or education)? Explain.
3. Prepare a short-range (one year) and a long-range (five year) Plan for Personal and Professional Growth and Involvement. This plan will serve as a preliminary draft and will be used for discussion purposes; it will be revised throughout the course. A sample planning form has been provided to help you with the development of these plans. Your plans should identify major activities of a professional nature that could contribute to your personal or professional growth and involvement; e.g., further course work, conventions, workshops, etc.
4. Have you written for a copy of your state's state plan? If the answer is "yes," put a 4 with a "yes" beside it on your paper. If it is "no," put a 4 with a "no" beside it, write a request for the plan, put a line through the "no" and enter a "yes" beside it.

ONE YEAR - FIVE YEAR
PLAN FOR PERSONAL AND PROFESSIONAL GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

Sample Planning Form

Description of Activity	Level or Type of Involvement	Priority	Schedule	Comments

Reading NotesPreface

The purpose of the text is to provide practical suggestions to managers on how they might improve their on-the-job performance. In vocational education, the manager may be the classroom teacher, vocational director or other vocational personnel.

Comment: The author's suggestions apply very well to all levels of management in vocational education.

Chapter 1: Managerial Leadership: Fulcrum for Profitability

Introduction: The manager-leader in vocational education is interested in the return-on-individuals (ROI). His task is to raise the competence and motivation levels of those he works with.

Vocational Education Management - role and function: Vocational education management must attain its intended educational objectives by working effectively with and through the human and material resources of the school system. It is significant that leadership is only one of ten functions associated with management. Not all persons in vocational education management are required to perform equally all functions, but those of planning, evaluating, and leading ought not be slighted by any vocational educator.

Vocational Education Managers and Administrators:

A great majority of all vocational educators not directly involved in classroom teaching are referred to as administrators. Using the author's definition of an administrator, there are very few administrators in vocational education; local, state and national levels included. Administrators (executives) have total program points of view, formulate long range goals and policies, and control or make essential decisions. The preponderance of vocational education personnel are in the management category. Vocational education managers interpret and implement the plans, policies and objectives of the vocational program with which they are working (usually a subsystem of the total program). The para-professionals, or technicians in vocational education are those concerned with the how, not the why. Administrators, vocational education managers and para-professionals have similar functions, the major differences being quantitative rather than qualitative. Administrative functions include more people and decisions of greater magnitude and complexity in comparison to the functions of vocational education managers or para-professionals.

Vocational Education Managers, Leaders and Administration:

In every position in vocational education the temptation is present to use human resources (i.e., influence and human relations) in dealing with one's peers and superiors and to use organizational resources (i.e., salary, advancement and work assignment) in dealing with one's subordinates. The use of human resources is an essential quality of leadership, and contributes to the more effective use of organizational resources. Problems in vocational education can result from; 1) a leader (i.e., one who has influence over the actions of others) with objectives other than those of the program, 2) the extensive use of school resources as a means of gaining compliance and 3) situations in which no leadership is being provided, i.e., everyone is doing only what is required and blaming others for the lack of results.

Some sense and nonsense about leadership in vocational education: "Leadership can be described as a process of influence on a group in a particular situation, at a given point in time and in a specific set of circumstances that stimulates people to strive willingly to attain organizational objectives giving them the experience of helping attain the common objectives and satisfaction with the type of leadership provided." p.9. Each individual has a unique combination of strengths and weaknesses. Leadership is the effective application of one's strengths to the solution of the complex situations of life; each situation being uniquely different from all others. In vocational education, as in all situations, influencing the actions of others, no matter how slight, is an act of leadership. By encouraging each individual to contribute to the leadership requirements of a given situation, in proportion to their strengths related to the situation, better solutions will result. This does not mean that the person responsible for making decisions relinquishes that responsibility. Good management practice indicates that the leader ought to develop ways of involving the resources of the group in formulating decisions. Leadership is not the "burden" of the few, but the responsibility of the multitude!

Major dimensions of vocational education leadership:

The vocational education leader must understand himself, those he works with, the situations requiring leadership and the idiosyncrasies of the system in which he works. Sensitivity to these factors is a necessary quality of effective leadership.

Chapter 2: Fifty-seven Varieties of Leader

Introduction: The science of leadership has no prescription that guarantees success. Sometimes unlikely people lead. The labels used to describe leadership styles are numerous and, for the most part, useless.

Formal vs. Nonformal Leadership: In vocational education, formal leaders are appointed by the administration. Vocational educators within the system select the informal leaders. Leadership is a quality of an individual, not of a position in an organization. When the formal and informal leaders are different persons, the possibility of conflict always exists. As long as both types of leaders are working towards the same objectives, this need not be an unhealthy situation. The formal leader, by recognizing and "formalizing" the informal leadership present in a given situation will make more effective use of the human resources of the system.

Comment: It is just as important to know when to accept "formal" leadership responsibility, as it is to know when to delegate it.

Authoritarian, Democratic and Laissez-faire Leaders:

A vocational education manager who adhered to a purely democratic management style would in most situations be viewed as avoiding his decision-making responsibilities. A completely authoritarian approach is equally unacceptable. The requirements of the situation are the major determinant of the appropriate balance between the two styles. Laissez-faire leadership is nonleadership and has to be considered the last choice in any situation.

Leaders in Bureaucracies: It is easy to identify vocational educators that seem to fit each of the categories presented in this section. A word of caution: People, like situations, change. In one situation, or at one point in time, a person might appear to be a zealot while at another appear to be a statesman. If we could see ourselves as others do, we might find that our self-image is several categories removed from where others place us.

Psychoanalytical View of Managerial Leadership: The characteristics associated with each category are more helpful than the categories in understanding leadership in vocational education. Vocational education has often been charged with a lack of innovation and creativity (characteristics of receptive management) or with becoming whatever is required for reimbursement (characteristic of marketing management). Our sights ought to be set on becoming productive vocational education managers, i.e., developing a clear notion of our identity as professionals and knowing what we stand for as vocational educators.

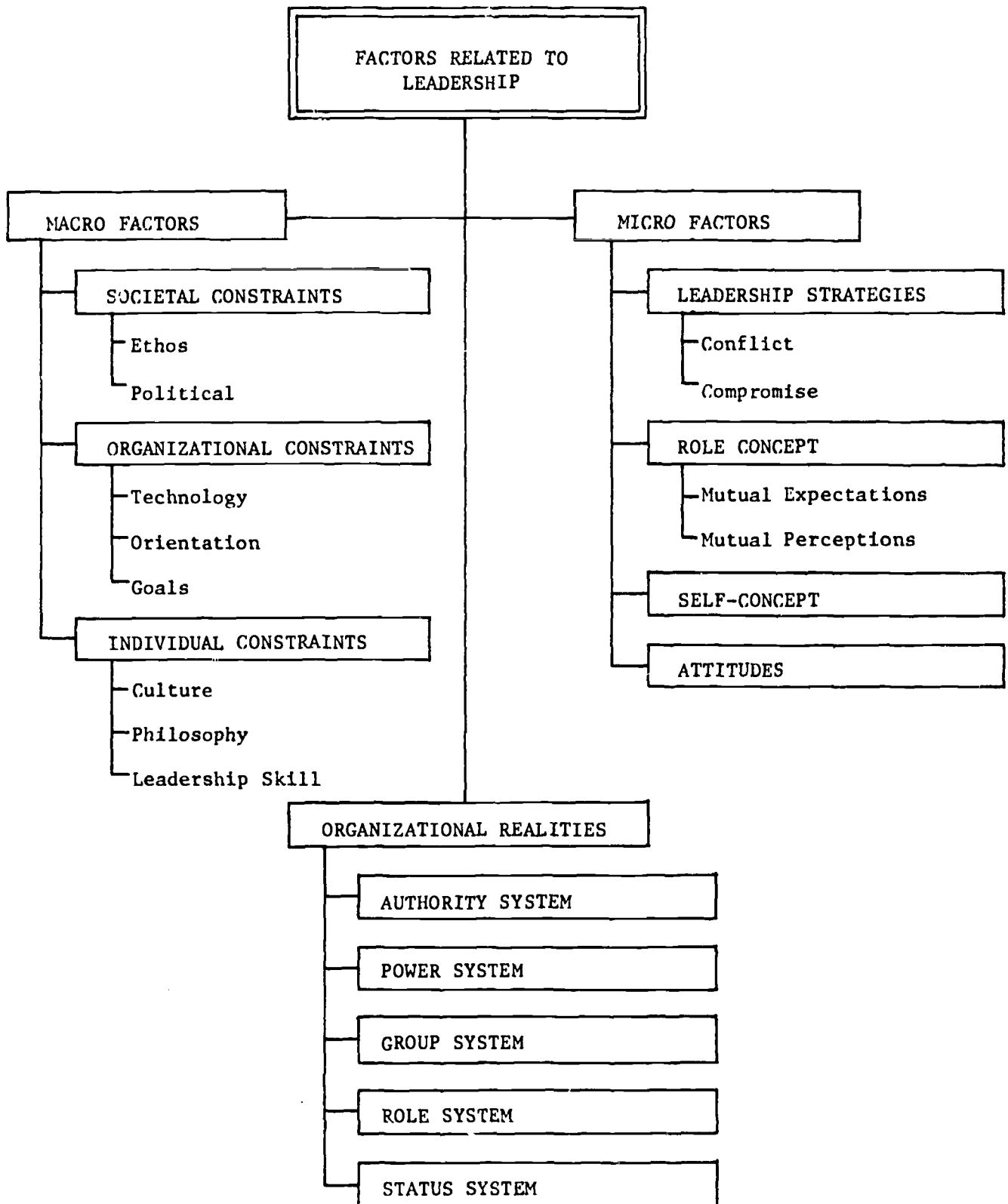
Charismatic Leaders: Vocational education has never been plagued or blessed, depending on your preference, with this style of leadership.

Managerial Leadership as a Pattern of Traits: Observation of an individual in action is a better measure of leadership ability than the possession of a group of traits. Certainly one must have the qualities relevant to a given situation for leadership to emerge. However, the possession of these qualities is no guarantee that leadership will follow.

Conclusions: Vocational educators should think of leadership as the interaction of the following variables:

1. The personality of the leader
 2. The unique qualities of vocational education
 3. The intellect, resourcefulness, sensitivity, etc. of the leader
 - *4. The unique features of each situation and the qualities and behavior relevant to them
- * Of the four, this is the most important.

LESSON TWO



LESSON TWO

Special Material: Obtain or develop an organization chart for the vocational education program that you are a part of, then proceed with this lesson.

Objectives: Upon completion of this lesson you should be able to...

...identify and describe five macro factors that influence your vocational education program.

...analyze your leadership qualities and describe three of the most important.

...compare the informal organizational structure of your vocational education program with the formal structure represented by its organization chart.

Overview:

In the first lesson leadership was defined as a process of influence over a group in a given situation at some point in time. The leadership model used in lesson one will be most helpful throughout the course. Additionally, the cognitive maps at the beginning of each lesson, when used with the course overview on page 6, should provide an excellent review in preparation for this lesson, and for those that follow. The major focus in this lesson will be the factors that place limits on leadership. Of primary interest will be the external (macro) factors, individual and interpersonal (micro) factors, and the organizational factors that determine, or set boundaries on the patterns of leadership that will be acceptable in a given situation.

Society, your school system and the uniqueness of the individuals you work with all affect and place limits on vocational education leadership. Society shapes vocational education and its leadership through the continuing value it places on education and work. Members of society are strongly encouraged to acquire as much of the former (education) and do as much of the latter (work) as they can. Most recent thinking on education, including career and community education, is not aimed at changing these basic values, rather it is focused on broadening and reorganizing the educational system to better achieve these values. Society is changing, but not all parts of it change at the same rate. Effective leaders are able to understand and use the often violent winds of change in steering a steady, well charted course (as represented by individual, local and state one-year and five-year plans), even if part of the voyage is in unfamiliar waters. Such a venture is much less threatening if the important elements of the journey are understood and can be made to serve rather than hinder goal-achievement activity. An understanding of the limits placed on leaders will be helpful in smoothing out some of the rough spots in such a venture.

Limits are placed on leadership by the organization in which it is being applied. The vocational education program you are a part of has goals and

Lesson Two (Continued)

priorities that determine and restrict your activities as an individual and as a professional. In all probability your program is part of a larger system of education that also has goals and priorities that place further limits, either directly or indirectly, on your activities. Such structure is necessary for the existence of society and for the effective operation of the educational system. However, effective leaders must understand the operation, strengths and weaknesses of the systems in which they work.

The most basic unit in any human system, vocational education or otherwise, is the individual. Individuals are products of differing cultures within society, are governed by their personal philosophy, and can provide leadership only to the extent permitted by their leadership skills and by the given situation. Although situations change, leadership skills can be developed so that leaders can adapt their leadership styles to the changing requirements placed on them. Part of this developmental process centers on understanding the forces of culture and personal philosophy that operate within ourselves and in others and create situations where leadership can be effectively exercised.

One of the major tasks in leadership development in vocational education is to make practitioners at all levels and in every specialty realize their potential for leadership, understand how to develop that potential and then accept their role in the leadership of vocational education. An improved self-concept among vocational educators, regarding their potential contribution to the profession, will greatly increase the support for and supply of leadership personnel. When a greater number of individuals share in the leadership responsibilities of the profession, the burden placed on any given individual should be proportionately less, while at the same time goal-attainment activities should occur with greater enthusiasm and broader support.

Leadership development in vocational education is not a problem of isolating "talented" individuals and giving them special preparation. Rather, it involves broadening the perspectives of practitioners at all levels, who are already providing leadership in their current position on a limited scale, to include participation in and providing support for the leadership of the field as a whole. Very often, the finest leadership in vocational education comes from persons out of the "lime light" who encourage, support, council and often guide the visible leadership of the field. Efforts to increase the supply of "visible" and "invisible" leaders will be, for the most part, a wasted effort without the willingness of the current leadership to share its responsibilities and accept the guidance and support of the members of the profession. At many levels of vocational education, and in a number of situations, major changes in attitudes and leadership strategies will be required.

Finally, the factor that could either be the least troublesome or the most difficult is the organizational structure of the educational system. The complexity of this system is the major determinant of leadership style. Complexity is not necessarily related to size, but to the potential for and intensity of conflict created by competition among the various systems within the organizational structure. While many leadership development programs are primarily aimed at improving a person's interpersonal skills because conflict between individuals in an organization is the major obstacle to effective leadership, a thorough understanding of the various component systems of the

organization will often identify the source of the conflict and suggest effective leadership strategies for working towards a resolution of the conflict.

Knowing the limits of leadership is equally as important as knowing what leadership is or how to be a leader. This lesson provides a detailed look at some of those limits.

Reading Assignment:

Cribbin: Chapters 4,5 and 6.

Developmental Exercises:

In short, concise statements respond to the items below.

1. Identify five macro factors that influence your vocational education program and the effect they have on leadership. Which one do you feel has the greatest influence on the leadership of your program? Explain.
2. Describe the three most important micro factors concerning your potential for leadership in vocational education. Indicate how you might strengthen or change these potentials. The thumbnail sketches on pages 79 and 80 in the text may give you some ideas on ways of responding to this question.
3. Give a brief critique of the organizational structure of your vocational program, identifying its major strengths and weaknesses (if any). Give an example of your strategy in working with this system (proposing a new course, requesting new equipment or a larger supply budget, requesting a new faculty or administrative position, etc.).
4. Review the one-year and five-year plans you developed as a part of lesson 1. Do you see any changes that need to be made in them at this point in the course?

Note: Please include the organizational chart you developed or obtained for use in this lesson with the responses to the developmental exercises you are to mail to your instructor.

Reading NotesChapter 4: Macro Factors

Introduction: Macro factors are those factors that concern the whole of vocational education. Ethical, political and societal factors are among the macro factors that have a significant effect in shaping the leadership in vocational education.

Vocational education leadership is culturally defined: Our culture consists of the values, principles, concepts and behavior we as a people share. A great many of these that are most important relate to our contributions to society through work and/or service. Vocational education leadership must be sensitive to the cultural biases of society. A large segment of the American population is future-oriented, receptive to rapid change and places a high value on "know-how" and competence. We expect our leaders to exhibit and promote these values. The vocational education leader must be aware of the subcultures that exist within our national boundaries. Some are racial, some are ethnic but all have values that are unique. A major focus of our culture is on the individual's contribution to society. Subcultures exist because groups of people have different views about what their contribution to society ought to be.

Vocational education leadership and ethos: Ethos is a universal, prevailing or characteristic view held by society. There are at least two in American society that must be considered by vocational educators. The first is the "protestant ethic." The protestant, or work ethic, includes the belief that a person should be hard-working, self-reliant, productive and ambitious. Often, persons with different values are viewed as misfits. The second is the "social ethic." People need to belong, conform and be accepted. A leader cannot ignore these values.

Vocational education is politically determined: Democracy is the political philosophy of our society and is a part of all our interactions with each other. It is a more difficult form of leadership, but at the same time more rewarding.

Vocational education leadership is societally determined: Society places a high value on achievement, and favors those groups that make progress in meeting the problems and challenges of society. Vocational education is a leader in preparing a large segment of our youth to achieve in society.

Vocational education leadership is philosophically determined: Our philosophy governs our dealings with our fellowman. The leadership pattern selected by a person who believes his fellowman to be good, honest and hard working will be different from that selected by a person who feels that people are evil, lazy and deceitful. Many leaders like the view of man that presents him as defined hereditarily, but able to be changed through individual effort and the utilization of the opportunities present in his surroundings. As educators, we all share some view about the changeability of man.

Vocational education leadership is technologically determined: No attempt will be made to equate the different types of vocational-technical schools with different types of industrial production processes. It suffices to say that the leadership style appropriate in a small, rural "comprehensive" high school would be much different from that in a large, metropolitan vocational-technical school or a suburban community college.

Vocational education leadership is organizationally determined: The style of leadership selected in a given situation depends on whether one is dealing vertically, horizontally or diagonally. It also makes a difference whether superiors, subordinates or peers are involved. Some organizations are maintenance oriented, prizing mediocrity over innovation. Others are change oriented, preferring to take prudent risks, or results oriented, accepting no excuses for failure to achieve prescribed goals. In practice vocational education programs have features of all three, thus complicating the patterns that will be acceptable. No two programs are exactly the same. Leadership that is effective in one situation may not be in another without major adaptations.

Vocational educators are generally very adept at identifying the important elements of the organization. It is also important to understand the key people, the nonformal organization, the interpersonal interaction patterns, channels for communication and how priorities are established for decision making. All vocational educators should know that the implementation of a plan or program is certainly more difficult than making the decision to implement.

Vocational education leadership is "skill-mix" determined: The skill needed for leadership at any level in vocational education differs. The program director may be concerned about the scheduling of classes and facilities using a new school time schedule, while the teacher is

concerned with helping students adapt to the changes. A different mix of human relations skills is required in each of these situations, even though they may relate to the same problem.

Chapter 5: Micro Factors

Introduction: "No manager is paid to lead; he is paid to accomplish organizational goals with and through his people, and leadership is but one of the instruments..." (Cribbin, 1972: 68).

Management strategies: All vocational educators are involved in some management activity and can therefore appreciate the strategies presented. Conflict, whether unlimited, partial or guerilla, should be understood, as it cannot always be avoided. Compromise, accommodation, persuasion and negotiation are preferred strategies. When these fail, conflict or the "iron fist" are the consequence. Every profession has its unethical and overly ambitious characters who do not hesitate to take advantage of their less resistant peers.

The vocational education manager-leader's concept of his role: Are you in vocational education to maintain a program, or do you seek to improve the system? Each person will see his or her role in vocational education differently.

Comment: It requires leadership just to maintain the current position of vocational education in our society. Greater amounts of leadership are necessary to change and improve the system.

Mutual perceptions and expectations:

- A. How the vocational educator and his superiors see each other: The superior has a concept of what he expects from his subordinates. He may want them to be ambitious or docile, close personal associates or socially distant. It is the vocational educator's responsibility to sense what is required and to attempt to make his superiors look good. Often this means adapting to their idiosyncrasies and experimenting with different approaches.
- B. How the vocational educator and his people see each other: People work to satisfy their needs, many times putting the interests of the school in second place. As vocational educators, ostensibly our goal is to increase the options open to students, while at the same time helping

to meet the manpower needs of society. Realistically, we also have personal and career goals, and must expect the same to be true of others.

- C. How the vocational educator sees his lateral relationships: To be an effective vocational educator one must be able to deal not only with other vocational educators, but with suppliers, citizen advisory committees and other educators at all levels. Vocational education is larger than any given program or special area and requires leadership if it is to operate smoothly.

The vocational educator's self-concept: One of the most important factors in the continued success of vocational education will be the concept we have of ourselves as professionals. Our successes and failures of the past are important in shaping our self-concept. Physical, psychological, intellectual and social elements are a part of this concept. We must also contend with what we would ideally like ourselves to be. In dealing with others, a leader must understand that a person's self-concept is his most fragile element and anything that threatens it will be resisted with all available resources.

The vocational educator-leader's attitude: Attitudes are a predisposition to act, think or feel a certain way about some object, person or group. They can be positive or negative, are learned, stable, sometimes rational, sometimes intense, serve as a basis for motivation and are translated into behavior. Vocational educators must be sensitive to their presences in themselves and in others. Leadership requires that one be able to deal effectively with one's own attitudes as well as those of others.

Chapter 6: Organizational Realities

Introduction: Organization charts do not truly depict the way people perform the transactions necessary for achieving the goals of a given vocational education program. Generally an organization chart depicts a minimal degree of formal structure, without which operation would be difficult. As people enter, exit or change positions in a program, the organizational structure of the program changes.

The authority system: Vocational education, in its broadest sense, is a national pyramid of people and programs. Anything essential for the survival of vocational education must be included in the pyramid.

Authority is the right to determine objectives, make decisions, reward and punish and to obligate subordinates to carry out assigned tasks. Authority in vocational education, as in any organization, ends where voluntary assent ends. Authority is never absolute, is a feature of a office or position, not a person and is legitimate only to the extent that it conforms to societal expectations. Managers have authority, leaders have influence (see Figures 1 and 2).

The vocational education-leader's attitude towards authority: One learns to lead by following. He who cannot follow must not be allowed to lead (old adage). Vocational education leaders must develop a balance between dependence and independence in both leading and following. Authority is a fact of life. The effective leader applies it fairly in his dealings with others and expects similar treatment from his superiors.

The power system: Power is the ability to impose one's will on another whether he likes it or not, or it is the ability to resist such an imposition. Power takes many forms in vocational education, and must be well understood for leadership to be effective,

- A. Types of power: 1) position power - power that results from the position, regardless of the incumbent, 2) reward and punishment power - results from control over the program goodies (schedules, assignments, \$\$\$), 3) expert power - based on a person's superior knowledge or experience, 4) referent power - power one has as a person or by identification with some group and 5) social power - power which can be wielded by members of a group.
- B. Handling the authority and power systems: Careful analysis and planning of one's activities will keep the situations requiring the use of or arousing the use of power to a minimum. Vocational educators ought to lead, not drive!

The group system: A serious weakness of vocational education is the tendency of most persons in the field to view their accomplishments as the results of their own individual efforts, rather than as the combined efforts of many persons within and without the educational system. As professionals, we have a lot to be proud of. However, we must not be so narrow that we fail to see the support given our programs by other education professionals, school personnel,

community leaders and other vocational educators at all levels and in all special areas.

- A. The impact of the vocational education profession on its members: It probably doesn't have the effect that most work groups or professions have on their members, but it is still powerful for those who identify themselves as vocational educators, rather than as subject area specialist only.
- B. The effects of professionals on the achievements of vocational education: The cohesiveness of the work group effects the activities of the members to a great extent. Vocational educators at the upper levels of government and education have developed the cohesiveness required to see that vocational education has a strong legislative and administrative base at the national and state levels. However, not all states have made the most of the opportunities that exist. Work now needs to center on the development of professional identification with vocational education at the local level.
- C. Developing local professional cohesiveness in vocational education: The competencies of all members of the local program ought to be utilized in the planning and decision making processes. In many states it is now required that all vocational educators participate, in some way, in the development of the local plan for vocational education. A measure of leadership effectiveness is the ability of members of a group to work together towards a common group goal. The leader is the person responsible for preventing or removing obstacles that interfere with this process. The development of the local plan is an excellent exercise in leadership behavior for all persons involved.

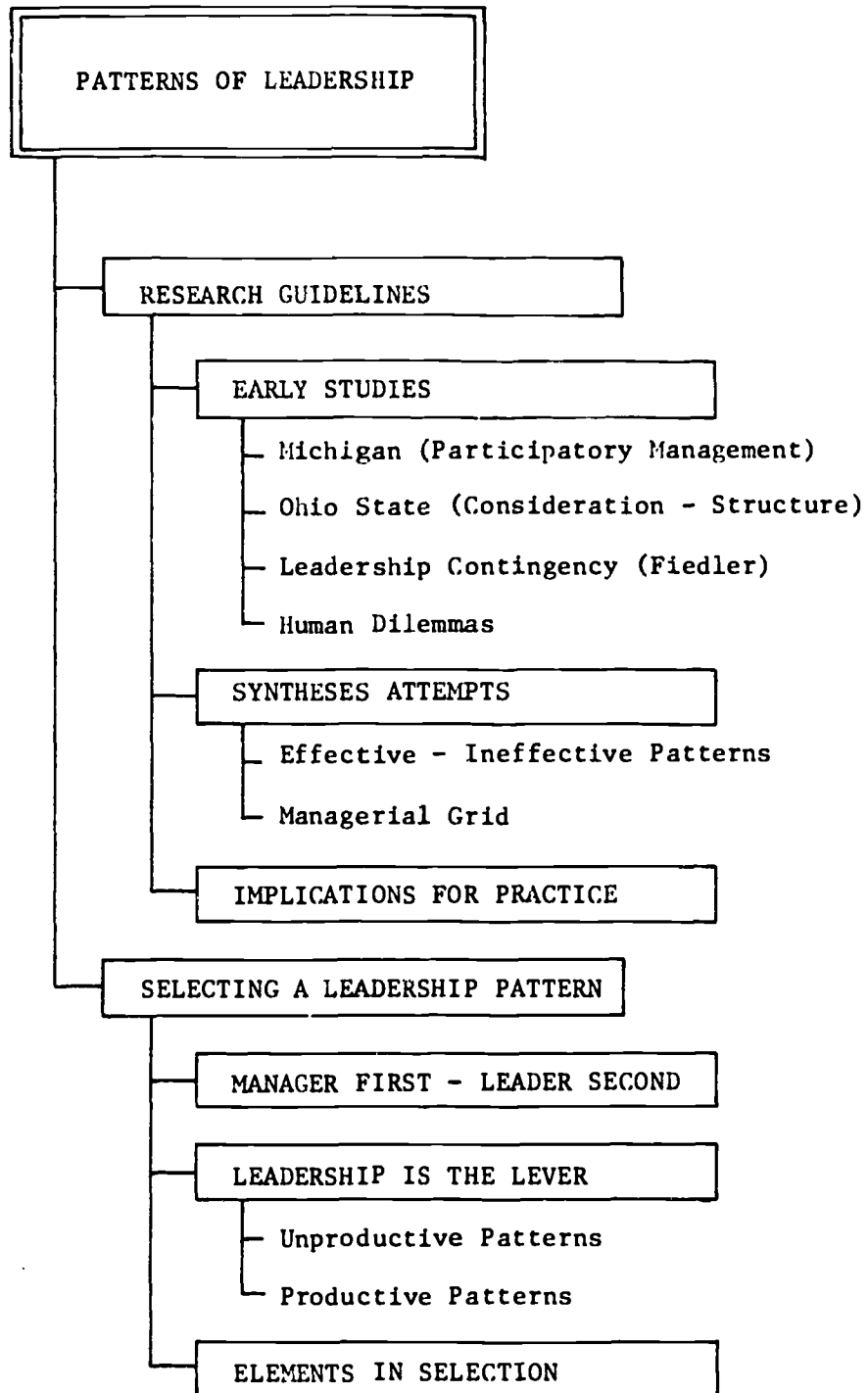
The role system: "A role defines the functions and activities to be performed and the behavior considered appropriate in a given position." (p. 99). Problems are usually the result of differing expectations about the behaviors and functions appropriate to a given position. An organization chart is one very limited solution to this problem. Some of the common role problems in education are role ambiguity, i.e., uncertainty regarding one's authority or the priorities of the system; role overload, i.e., too many bosses, a common problem for vocational educators in the comprehensive high school setting; and role conflict, i.e., concurrently attempting to satisfy two or more conflicting roles, such as personal and organizational goals which are at odds, or divergent expectations from a single source such as a principal, school board member, or department chairman. The effective

leader is one who works to determine the limits of his own role, rather than passively reacting to the expectations of others. This places him in a position to remain abreast of changes in personnel and practices within the system. When persons redefine their own role, they ought to be prepared to support it with a strong rationale based on the goals of the organization!

The status system: It exists in every organization, vocational education included. The professional ought to concentrate on doing the best possible job in his position in the system and let status take care of itself. The persons with the highest status are those that are able to produce it, share it or confer it on others.

Map vs. reality: Understanding the functioning of any system requires going beyond the formal structure presented in an organization chart. Vocational education is subject to most of the problems discussed in this section, and to a few that aren't. An awareness of the functioning of the system is essential for leadership.

LESSON THREE



LESSON THREE

Special Materials: None

Objectives: Upon completion of this lesson you should be able to:

- ...identify and describe three contributions that research has made to the understanding of leadership development
- ...relate research on leadership development to leadership in vocational education
- ...describe in a general way the three most important elements of your personal style that relate to leadership
- ...describe at least one leadership pattern that is suited to your personal style

Overview:

The first two lessons have dealt with the description of leader characteristics, organizational limitations and other factors that enter into the determination of leadership behavior. There have been many attempts to measure the contribution of these factors to productivity, motivation, job satisfaction, alienation and a host of other variables that seem to be related to leadership effectiveness. Among the results of research on leadership is the finding that effective leaders have many characteristics in common. However, ineffective leaders also have many characteristics in common with effective leaders, which indicates that the possession of the characteristics known to be common among effective leaders is no guarantee that a person will be an effective leader. None of the research that has been done in this, or any other area of leadership effectiveness has been able to establish that one pattern of leadership behavior is clearly superior to another in a given situation.

Leadership, like so many other activities in life, is a matter of common sense, supported by all the information one can get. Research has added greatly to our information in the leadership area. In this lesson we will be investigating the results of research on leadership and applying those results to the selection of a leadership pattern. Actually, it is not as clear-cut as it seems because, as has been mentioned, the research results have been inconclusive, if not outright disappointing from an experimental point of view. However, this does not diminish the value of these efforts from a practical standpoint, and does not mean that the results of future research in this area will also be inconclusive. In fact, the very opposite may be true. Likert, Fiedler, Shartle and others started with basic, uncomplicated notions about managerial and leadership effectiveness, and have developed very sophisticated theories. A better understanding of the scope and complexity of effective leadership has evolved from these early studies, many of which started in the mid 1940's and early 1950's. The models and theories that have resulted are still in a state of transition.

One major focus of this lesson, and of the course as a whole, is the importance of the situation as a determinant of leadership. Different people lead in different situations. Vocational educators who have been mediocre in

Lesson Three (Continued)

the classroom or shop, sometimes approach brilliance as an officer in some professional organization, on some school committee or as an administrator. It is not unlikely that you know of persons like this, and also of persons with a reverse pattern. More generally, because of the complementary nature of classroom teaching and administration, persons that are outstanding in the classroom possess many of the characteristics that facilitate success in the leadership of professional organizations, school committees and educational administration.

An earlier lesson presented the idea that the difference between an executive, an administrator, and a manager or supervisor is not in the types of skills that each possess, but in the emphasis that must be placed on these skills and the magnitude and scope of such things as the company resources and decision-making power available to each. The relationship among faculty, administrators and executives or superintendents in education closely parallels the above relationship.

Leadership requires a broad perspective. When a salesman is brought into vocational education to teach a distributive education course, or a nurse is brought in to teach in the health occupations area, the first step in the broadening process is to require that they take a set number of professional education courses that are really designed to make them leaders in and managers of the education environment and directors of the educational process. The machine drafting teacher who aspires to become a leader of the professional organization in his speciality area must be prepared to think of drafting not only in terms of the machine drafting area, but of architectural, engineering, piping, automated, and other areas of drafting as well. There are also the various levels of drawing to contend with, i.e., junior high school, high school, post-high school and college.

Obviously vocational education leaders, inside and outside the classroom, cannot be experts in all areas, although they should know how to utilize the expertise of persons that are familiar with a given area when required. The higher a person's position is in any organization the broader his perspective of the organization must be. The most effective organizations are those having persons with broad perspectives in positions at all levels; it then has people that are prepared for a wide range of situations.

Part of the reading assigned with this lesson attempts to differentiate between a person's style of leadership and pattern of leadership. A person's style of leadership reflects his personal style which is shaped throughout life and over which he has little control. However, the context in which he operates, i.e., his leadership pattern, is to an extent controllable, and ought to be compatible with his personal style. An individual with an authoritarian personality should not adopt a participatory or democratic leadership pattern.

Reading Assignment:

Cribbin: Chapters 3 and 7.

Developmental Exercises:

In short concise statements respond to the items below.

1. Identify and describe what you consider to be the three most important contributions of research on leadership to the understanding of leadership development. Can each be related to leadership development in vocational education? Explain.
2. Identify and describe what you consider to be the most important elements of your personal style as they relate to leadership, particularly vocational education leadership.
3. Using the elements identified in item 2, describe a leadership pattern that might be appropriate for you. Could more than one pattern be appropriate? (If your answer is no, you guessed wrong. If it is yes, in a sentence or two describe why more than one would be appropriate).
4. Are there elements in your response to item 3 that have implications for your one-year and five-year plans (things that are not presently included in them, but could be)? Explain.

Reading NotesChapter 3: Research Guidelines

Introduction: The consumers of the products of research would like those results to be of immediate value in solving current problems. Generally, research in education and in vocational education deals with problems that are related to, but somewhat removed from actual practice. However, such research has provided many useful concepts that help us to analyze and understand the problems of practice. This also holds true for research on leadership. Such research has not significantly improved our ability to identify ideal leadership patterns, but has increased our sensitivity to the many human and situational factors involved in leadership activity.

Early studies of leadership effectiveness: The early studies were concerned with identifying the elements of effective leadership. Several well developed theories of leadership effectiveness have emerged from these works and should have an impact on future research.

A. The Michigan Studies (1946 to present) - Likert and his associates have identified five major dimensions related to effective supervision:

1. The supervisor's definition of his role in relationship to other workers.
2. The supervisor's orientation toward the work group, i.e., his degree of employee or production centeredness.
3. The closeness with which a supervisor oversees the work of employees.
4. The supervisor-work group relationship. Participatory management has been an observed feature in many high producing groups.
5. The type of supervision the supervisor receives.

Comment: Supervision within vocational education can be a difficult task, depending on how one treats the above dimensions. The fact that vocational educators are generally self-confident, occupationally competent and have a clear sense of purpose has implication for vocational education supervision.

B. The Ohio State Studies - Shartle and his associates developed two major dichotomous variables:

1. Consideration - a measure of the leader's rapport, trust and two-way communication with his or her workers.
2. Initiation of structure - the effort made by a manager to insure that the work of the group is organized, coordinated and effective in the attainment of organizational objectives.

Comment: Consideration is directed towards the needs of the individual in the work group. Structure is aimed at organizational needs. Workers generally prefer more consideration, while management places greater emphasis on the initiation of structure. Leaders in vocational education should not place a major emphasis on the initiation of structure without also showing consideration. The micro, macro and organizational factors identified in the leadership model in lesson one enter into the determination of the balance between the two.

C. The leadership contingency approach - Developed by Fiedler, the major strength of this theory is the recognition it gives to elements of leadership beyond the personal traits of the leader. Following are its three components:

1. Leader-member relations: it is most important that they have mutual respect.
2. Task structure: the degree to which the task can be objectively defined and performed.
3. Position power: degree to which the position enables its occupant to force compliance (probably the least important of the three).

Fiedler then relates these components to the "favorableness of the situation," i.e., the degree to which the situation permits the leader to influence or control the group. It is his purpose to determine experimentally which leadership patterns are most effective in a given type of situation.

Comment: Fiedler's work is adaptable to the vocational educator's leadership role in the classroom, in administration and in professional organizations at the community, state and national levels.

D. The human dilemmas of leadership - Zaleznik proposes a psychoanalytic approach to leadership. He identifies three behavior categories present in all managers; maintenance, mediative and proactive. The following descriptors indicate that

different types of managers place different emphasis on each:

1. Person-oriented: prefers maintenance activities, i.e., activities in response to company needs or problems.
2. Idea or task-oriented: competitive, achievement oriented and aggressive, i.e., very pro-active.
3. Fusion-oriented: brings organizational resources to bear on problems (mediative), works energetically while still being considerate of people.

Comment: Vocational educators at all levels can observe instances of the behavior described in these four theories. They provide a structure for the analysis of the concerns that we might have regarding the leadership provided by ourselves and others. Additionally, these theories appear to be universally applicable to our roles as employees in an educational system, as professionals in the field of vocational education, and as citizens in the civic and religious activities of our communities. The experimental tests of these theories have not provided conclusive support for them. However, the analytic value of these theories is unquestioned.

Syntheses attempted: A number of diagnostic tests have been devised to serve as personal analysis guides. The eight categories developed by Reddin (deserter, missionary, autocrat, compromiser, bureaucrat, developer, benevolent and executive) are described in a manner that makes the latter four the most desirable, with a rating of "executive" being the ideal. Blake developed his managerial grid along the lines of the Michigan study. A manager is rated from one to nine on two dimensions; 1) his concern for workers and 2) his concern for production. A rating of one in concern for production and nine in concern for workers (1,9) is labeled "soft" or "country club" management. Other combinations of ratings have other names.

Implications for vocational education: Leadership in vocational education is not a scarce resource, rather, it is an under developed resource. The results of research should help vocational education make better use of the talent that is present in all members of the profession and to allocate the time, intellect and efforts of vocational educators to the most important tasks and pressing problems confronting the profession. Research findings indicate that effective leadership requires self-understanding, understanding of others and self-discipline. Further, leaders in the profession will need to be able to place their occupational specialties in the broader context of

vocational education, career education and the education profession as a whole. It is only in this context that the individual components of vocational education take on meaning and importance and only through effective leadership that they will be realized.

Chapter 7: Selecting a Managerial Leadership Pattern

Introduction: Management and leadership are distinct but closely related concepts. Effective managers always build strong organizations while effective leaders may not. The recent concern in vocational education is to develop personnel with both qualities.

Manager first - leader second: In theory the two should be combined; in practice they are often separated. Both are needed, but effective management adds the greatest value to an organization. Managers make resource allocations, motivate people, achieve results, set an example, have expertise, promote change, serve as link pins in the organization, have influence with superiors and build a climate conducive to achievement.

Comment: A manager that can do all of these things well is very likely to be "mistaken" for an effective leader, even by the experts!

Management and leadership development programs are worthless without changes in the upper levels of management that will permit the practice of newly acquired skills. The same is true in vocational education. Changes in programs require changes in administrative attitudes to be effectively implemented. There is nothing more frustrating to a teacher or administrator than being exposed to better ways of achieving their goals, but being blocked from using them by the inertia of the system, or their superiors, or their subordinates.

Leadership is the lever: Although one's managerial style is largely determined by one's personal style, an individual has the freedom to determine, if he desires, the shape of his managerial-leadership pattern. To do so effectively, one must be able to match his own strengths and weaknesses to those of the pattern he chooses. Domineering, pseudo-democratic, accommodative, paternalistic and bureaucratic patterns should be avoided due to their unproductiveness. Directive, collaborative

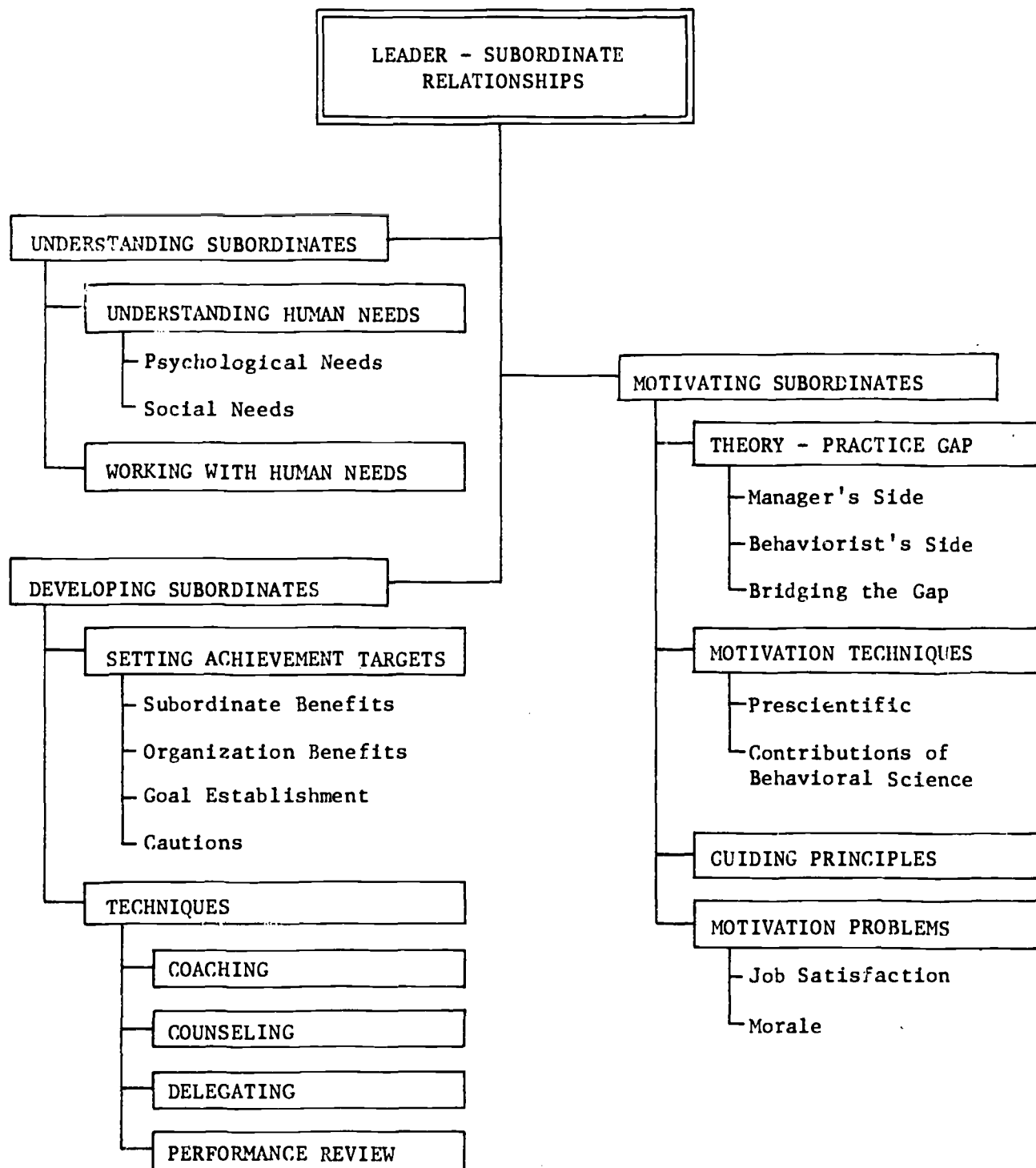
and collegial patterns are more productive and worthy models for vocational educators seeking to improve their personal managerial-leadership pattern. Much of the preparation in teacher education programs is really management training for education. For example, educational psychology is generally directed towards helping prospective teachers understand the students with whom they will work. Most management training programs have a psychology component that also deals with interpersonal relations, motivation theory, attitude change and other topics related to work group behavior. Leadership in both industry and vocational education is the vehicle that permits the more effective use of managerial-educational skills.

Goodness of fit in a pattern: In making the proper selection of a leadership pattern, it is necessary to analyze the components of the situation to determine, as best as is possible, the consequences of the patterns being considered. The decision on what pattern should be used should be made rationally, rather than relying on "what comes naturally." However, if the pattern selected proves to be "unnatural" it may be best to permit someone else to assume the major leadership responsibilities in a given situation. Following are some of the elements that are of importance in making this choice:

1. leader personality and philosophy of life
2. character of the work group
3. relations with the work group, peers and superiors
4. work and work environment
5. societal acceptance

The variables that are of most importance to you, and your position in vocational education, should be the major determinants of the patterns you select. The purpose of this course is to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the more common patterns and to help you analyze your strengths and weaknesses such that your decisions will be based on understanding and rationality.

LESSON FOUR



LESSON FOUR

Special Materials: The one year and five year plan for personal development that you developed in lesson one.

Objectives: Upon completion of this lesson you should be able to:

- ...describe and critique the personnel evaluation system of your vocational education program
- ...recommend alternative personnel evaluation and review procedures
- ...develop a thumbnail description of the important personal and leadership characteristics of vocational educators with whom you are acquainted

Overview:

The earlier lessons were concerned with describing the characteristics of and state of the art in leadership effectiveness and development. This lesson and the next focus on the important responsibilities of the manager-leader. In many respects this lesson serves as a brief review of the psychology of human needs and motivation theory that are taught as a part of most teacher preparation programs. The major difference is the context in which they are being applied.

In this lesson we will explore some of the ways in which a leader can attempt to understand, influence, motivate and develop subordinates. These become increasingly important if, as was stated in a previous lesson, leaders must achieve their goals through the efforts of others. For the leader to be considered successful, the "others" must be capable of achieving the goals established by the organization. It is the leader's responsibility to see that subordinates have the required capability or, if necessary, to help them develop it. Possibly this lesson's most significant contribution will be to point out areas where vocational educators can improve their own skills.

Before attempting to prescribe developmental experiences for others, a person ought to be sure his own house is in order. A quick check of the one year and five year plans for personal development that you developed in lesson one is a good starting point. Do they contain a systematic program of professional experiences, based on your perception of your needs? For instance, do they call for attendance at some workshop, conference or convention in your special area, in vocational education in general, or in the broader field of education? You may not be able to tie down a date, place and time for inclusion in your plan, but such attendance ought to be mentioned and you ought to be on the lookout for opportunities for such experiences.

One major complaint might be that such experiences have not been beneficial to you in the past. If this is the case, then it is likely that others have not benefited either. The responsibility is yours and theirs to participate in the planning and presentation of these events so that they will meet a wider variety

Lesson Four (Continued)

of interests and needs. Besides, if more people are involved there is less required of each person, and a spreading of the possible benefits of learning through planning and presentation. Departmental, school and community committees can also benefit from increased support and participation and ought also to be given consideration in your plan for personal growth and development.

In most states, the major responsibility for the preservice and inservice development of vocational education personnel is left in the hands of the teacher preparation institutions. Such programs provide a fair amount of organization and planning for individuals who are working on a degree or for certification, but offer little that systematically extends beyond these needs. Local education agencies, or employers of vocational education professionals, need to assume responsibility for providing alternative means of inservice development, and for rewarding planning and participation in them. Most salary schedules recognize and reward individuals for continuing education for which graduate credit is received, and in some communities, programs sponsored by industry or professional associations and approved by the school district are rewarded. Individual plans, based on individual needs, are required to help each person determine how best to invest his or her time in acquiring the professional experiences needed for growth and development.

Recently an experienced vocational teacher, in need of additional graduate credits, was canceled out of a Thursday night graduate class. The instructor, while apologetic about the canceling of the class and the inconvenience it would cause, offered to help the individual get into a Wednesday night class that appeared to meet his professional needs. The vocational educator declined the help because he was more interested in getting any course that would be available on Thursday night. Thursday night was the night that the car pool came to campus and became the major determinant of his graduate program for that semester. The discussion to this point is intended to point out the need for both planning and alternatives; planning by the individual, and alternatives made available by the schools and teacher education institutions. Before a program of alternatives can be offered, it will be necessary for individual leaders and groups of professionals to propose and support such change.

The first part of this lesson deals with the understanding of subordinates. There is a tendency in education and elsewhere to overemphasize the narrow aspects of human behavior, excluding or rejecting those aspects that are of least concern to us. For instance, in the past, vocational educators have not been concerned that their students be able to read, write, add and subtract so long as they were able to develop salable vocational skills. We have since learned that an emphasis on the general as well as the vocational skills better serves the needs of students and increases their options in life. A similar lesson was learned by industry when they relied entirely on economic incentives in the effort to motivate workers. They soon discovered that workers seek dignity and fulfillment in their work, in addition to fair compensation.

It is important, as we attempt to understand the needs of those we work for and with, to realize that people share more commonalities than differences. This is a doubly difficult task in vocational education because of our tendencies to hide in our occupation specialties and to accentuate our differences, particularly with regard to the rest of the education profession. It is very likely

that the kinds of wants, needs and concerns we have are shared by others in our group of associates. We may each have a different perspective on each of the various areas of concern and a different way of expressing our concerns, but in the final analysis the commonalities are greater than the differences. The solution lies in being patient enough to get past the different perspectives, modes of expression and degrees of emphasis and to get to the central issues. It is difficult to attempt to go beyond the superficial treatment of the symptoms of a problem to the discovery of the underlying causes. It cannot always be successfully accomplished, but when it is, understanding results.

One caution! Our perceptions of others are developed through our own personal experiences. To the extent that our experiences are narrow, our perceptions will be narrow also. Potential leaders should make every effort to extend their experiences both in vocational education and the much broader area of education. Once again the one year and five year plans for personal improvement become important vehicles for systematic professional growth and development.

The second area of concern in this lesson is motivation. Just as there are gaps between theory and practice in business and industry, gaps also exist in education. It is interesting that educators are reluctant to apply the principles of psychology that work so well in the classroom, to their dealings with each other. We are all familiar with the educational litany of individualized instruction for students in the classroom. Has this principle been applied to the inservice programs for teachers? In most instances the answer is no, and in some cases - NO! However, if vocational education personnel were encouraged to develop, with the help of their supervisors, individualized programs of professional improvement based on their personal needs and then held accountable for them, such a system would have merit. Interestingly enough, these are the same procedures that are used with students in most programs of individualized instruction. The second and third chapters assigned as reading for this lesson cover in detail how such a plan could operate.

Reading Assignment:

Cribbin: Chapters 8, 9 and 11.

Developmental Exercises:

1. Give a brief description of the system used to evaluate the vocational education personnel in your program. Identify several strengths and weaknesses of the system. Recommend any changes you might make to improve the system. In the event that your program does not have a personnel evaluation system of any type, develop what you think to be an adequate system or tell why such a system is not needed. (Be wary of assuming that there is no system. Has anyone been reassigned or encouraged to resign? If so, who did it, and how?)
2. Develop a thumbnail description of the strengths and weaknesses of two vocational educators with whom you are familiar. The purpose of the sketch is to identify their leadership potential and important personal characteristics (Pages 79 and 80 contain examples that could provide a model for your analysis).

Lesson Four (Continued)

3. Will the sketches you developed in item 2 be of any use to you in your future dealings with these persons? How, or if not, how could it be changed to be of use? Explain.
4. What alternatives are available in your part of the state for personnel development? How can they be improved? Who should take what steps to modify these alternatives?
5. What alternatives would be of worth to both of the individuals in item 2 above? What alternatives would be most useful to only the first individual described? to the second individual?



Reading NotesChapter 8: Understanding Subordinates

Introduction: A person's human nature, his view of his fellow man and the way he reacts to leadership responsibilities is the result of his experiences throughout life. It is the responsibility of every specialist, but particularly of vocational specialists, to expand their breadth of experience and thereby their understanding of others.

Understanding human needs: On most dimensions of human characteristics, people are more alike than different. All humans have essentially the same physical make-up, but vary quantitatively and qualitatively. Most vocational educators have a similar set of needs, but differ in the intensity of, or emphasis placed on, the individual needs in the set.

- A. Psychological needs: The need to be different, for independence and self-expression, to experience success, adequacy and self-esteem, for development and for defense are within all persons and have an effect on behavior. The fulfillment that most vocational educators find in their occupational specialties contributes to the satisfaction of these needs.
- B. Social needs: The need for attention and approval, to belong and conform and to participate and contribute are powerful determinants of human activity. Vocational educators, when asked why they entered the education profession from their previous career, frequently indicate that it was the result of a desire (need) to make a contribution to society.

In striving to be like each other we give up our individuality and our social freedom. However, given the complexity of man's psychological and social make-up, no matter how hard a person tries he can never be exactly like another human being. It is in working with groups of people that we are sensitized to their individuality, and then only if we make the effort to do so.

Working with human needs: On every human variable there will be a wide range of individual differences. A single approach or prescription is inadequate to handle all, or even a large part, of them. Following are some guides:

1. Avoid trying to force others into your mold. Accept them as they are. Focus on their strengths, but be aware of their weaknesses.
2. Evaluate people on their merits. It requires greater effort and better data, but permits discrimination among, not against group members.
3. Be sensitive to all types of feedback, but particularly to that related to your behavior.
4. In observing and analyzing the behavior of others, be systematic. Understanding requires information (strengths, weaknesses, aversions and preferred treatment).

Most of these guides are "old hat" in education, but are only applied in our dealings with students, not in our interactions with each other as professionals.

Chapter 9: Motivating Subordinates

Introduction: Individual effort is almost always at its best when the motivation is internal to the person, rather than the result of external pressure from a leader or boss. When persons are working with an organization, they add to the productivity of the organization rather than act as a drain on the energies of its leaders. Any organization, educational or otherwise, can generally operate with a number of "weak cylinders," but can't be expected to deliver high performance.

The theory-practice gap: Scientists have studied the problem of motivation and have had some successes. Several plausible theories have been developed. Practitioners support motivation research and are interested in the results, but haven't realized great benefit from its findings. Why?

- A. The practitioners' side: Teachers are skeptical about research findings that contradict their own past experiences. At other times they have accepted incomplete research findings, which has led to unsatisfactory experiences. Educators often tinker with research findings or implement them in an artificial or mechanical manner. The net result has been a disillusionment with research and researchers on the part of many educators, particularly vocational educators.

- B. The behaviorists' side: Experimental results, or lack of results, are clouded in scientific jargon. Researchers, many with a tender ego, use their expertise to talk down to "non-scientific" types. Some researchers, many of whom have no "real" vocational or educational experience, want influence without accountability. Vocational educators have goals and deadlines and lack patience with or tolerance of frustration and failure. Researchers have a much higher tolerance for frustration and "failure."
- C. Bridging the gap: There are many features in a vocational education program that cannot be changed easily. Administrator, teachers, traditions, educational philosophy and finances are what they are and are outside the control of the researcher. Whatever else the researcher does, he is obligated to place a major part of his efforts at the point where his expertise will best meet the legitimate needs and expectations of vocational educators. At the same time, vocational educators need to recognize that research answers do not come easily, and need to provide data for soundly conceived studies even if they do not have prospects of immediate payoff.

Motivation techniques: The problem with motivation is that there are more theories than supportive data, and that vocational educators in general are aware only of the work done in this area that has direct application in the classroom setting.

- A. Prescientific techniques: coercion, conniving, compensation and cuddle and coddle have been tried, with disappointing results and varying reactions in both industry and education.
- B. Contributions of behavioral science: McGregor (Theory X and Y), Maslow (Hierarchy of needs - physiological, security, social, ego, self-actualization), Herzberg (job satisfiers and dissatisfiers), Argyris (mental health), and Bennis (adaptive organization). Much of the work done by these researchers seems so "obvious" that one has to wonder why their discovery hadn't occurred sooner. In all likelihood, when the break through in leadership development is made, it too will appear "obvious." All the work mentioned in this section have implications for vocational education practitioners.

Guiding principles: Motivation means getting people to do things (preferably on their own). There are no universal motivators. Research has shown the most effective motivator to be the job. As all educators know, motivation is a two-way process. Not only do we motivate our students, administrators and colleagues, but they motivate us as well. What we do or say is not nearly as important as the example we set.

Implementing motivational principles: The leader must have strategies for working with individuals and groups since most persons (including the leader at some point in time) take a job or join an organization out of self-interest, and must be shown that their best interests are served by furthering the interests of the organization. This means that leaders must understand and be able to appeal to needs at all levels. The first step, however, is the establishment of mutual respect.

Problems of job satisfaction and morale: These are emotional problems involving individuals and/or groups.

- A. Job satisfaction: Job satisfaction is very subjective and is the worker's feeling that he is securing what he has a right to expect and wants. This is a difficult area because the things that lead to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are quite different. It is reasonable to assume that the vocational educator's occupational specialty and role in education will be sources of satisfaction, and that school administration, facilities and resources are likely sources of dissatisfaction.
- B. Morale: Morale is an emotional, rather than rational, group response to a given situation and is based on: job satisfaction, pride in work, wage and promotion opportunities, and identification with the profession and/or institution. High staff morale does not necessarily result in high productivity, but is probably related to student morale and recruitment and to the rapport that develops between a vocational education program and local businesses and industrial establishments (rapport requires effort and a healthy attitude).

Chapter 11: Developing Subordinates

Introduction: One of the distinguishing characteristics of a profession is the commitment of its members to continued growth and development. Almost every educational system at all levels has either a required inservice program or an incentive system, or both, that encourages inservice activities. (Note the Theory X overtones).

Setting achievement targets: Achievement targets are the industrial and business equivalent of behavioral or measurable objectives in education. Such targets are developed for schools, programs, courses and students, but rarely for ourselves. Such objectives aid in the rational establishment of priorities, accountability of people and programs, clarification of standards and rational career planning for individuals.

- A. Benefits for the subordinate: They tell him where he stands, how he is doing, and how he ought to allocate his time and energies. A superior ought to intervene only when the subordinate has failed or has encountered an insurmountable obstacle.
- B. Benefits for the organization: Standards that are based on consensus reduce conflict, encourage individual goal achievement, and thus lead to the achievement of programs and school goals. Objective standards make it possible to identify promotable individuals early (as well as those who are mediocre or incompetent), thus indicating the emphasis or direction that their personal development programs ought to take.
- C. Establishing goals: Persons affected by goals should help develop them. The goals should reflect the most important components of the task and the highest priorities of the vocational program. Essentially, this is a behavioral objectives approach to supervision. Following are three important situations to avoid. Don't ...

...impose your view on subordinates

...let subordinates bite off too much initially

...be unwilling to review and revise the standards over time

Coaching: Coaching is a form of teaching, with the aim of developing a better employee. It must stimulate the employee at the same time it deals with his problems. It should result in new ideas, solutions and skills, and should be followed up with feedback and support. It is a potentially useful technique for working with persons new to the vocational education profession.

Counseling: Counseling has as its aim a better adjusted employee. However, it must not be viewed as an opportunity for administrators to pry. Vocational educators without specific training in this area ought to exercise great caution.

- A. Some counseling principles: A person with problems is already unhappy with himself. It is up to the leader to establish a channel for communication and to help the subordinate gain insight into his problem. A leader ought to tackle only counseling problems where success seems assured, there are professionals to handle the others.
- B. Possible approaches: One can be threatening, reassuring or directive. The directive, problem solving approach is not counseling in its strictest sense.
- C. Legitimate counseling problems: Performance, career, job adjustment, social adjustment and personal adjustment counseling.

Delegating: If you've picked good people for the job to be performed, then step aside and let them do it! Delegation is a skill that improves with practice. The development of the local one year and five year plan for vocational education programs offers an excellent opportunity for exercise in this area.

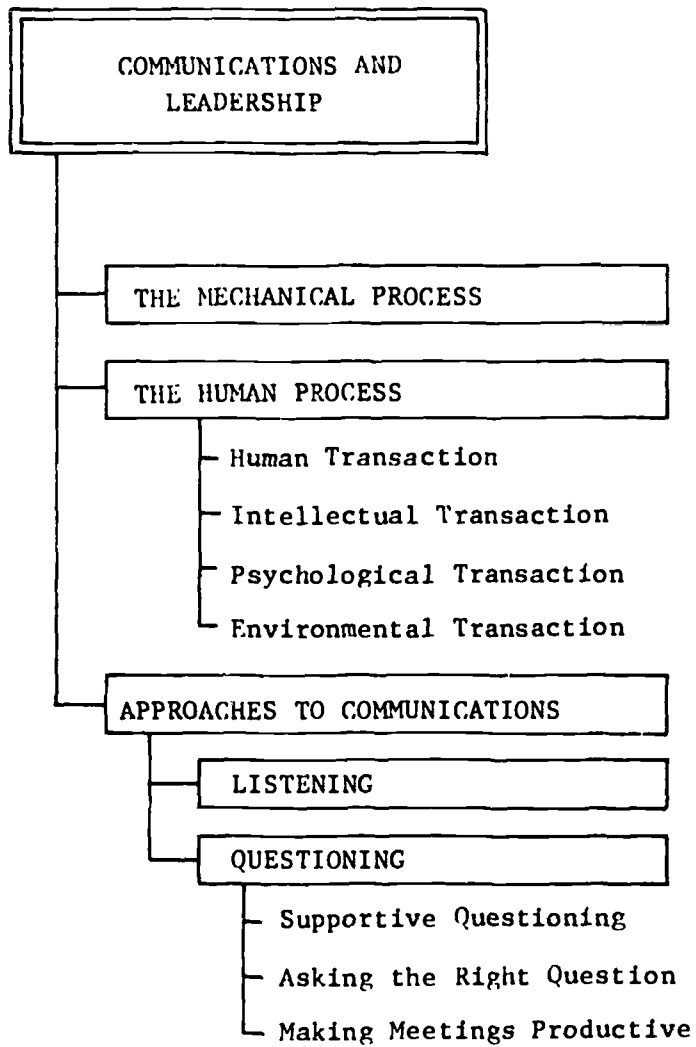
- A. What to delegate: Delegation is essentially a process of job enrichment, as well as a means of developing employees and expressing confidence in them. As responsibility is delegated, the required authority must accompany it if the employee is to be held accountable.
- B. How to delegate: Delegation must be part of a plan that takes account of the employee's strengths and weaknesses, encourages self-development, and spells out the ground rules and rewards.

Performance Reviews: Both the employer and employee have the right to know the results of his performance. Hopefully such a review will take place in a positive climate, with earned recognition, constructive criticism, coaching and planning for improvement all included. These reviews should recur on a regular basis.

- A. Performance review vs. developmental review:
A developmental review is concerned with strengthening and improving the employee. The performance review is competitive, using peers and established goals as standards, and indicating exactly where the employee stands.
- B. Conducting the performance review: The review should be simple, supportive and based on an evaluation of the employee's performance. It makes the employee aware of his contribution to the organization. Within vocational education an assumption is often made that everyone knows what their contribution has been, so it need not be called to their attention. This is a mistake! If for no other reason, performance reviews should be conducted to let subordinates know that you are aware of their contribution.

Comment: The one-year and five-year plans you have been developing in the previous lessons could serve as a basis for a performance review by providing the standards for evaluation.

LESSON FIVE



LESSON FIVE

Special materials: A cassette tape recorder and a blank cassette cartridge (supplied with the course syllabus).

Objectives: Upon completion of this lesson the student will be able to:

...tape record responses to the questions assigned in this lesson within fifteen minutes of recording time.

...identify and describe the strengths and weaknesses of several common channels for communications.

...describe three possible sources of interference in the communications process.

Overview:

It is through the process of communication that the special skills, knowledge and personal characteristics of the leader emerge and are translated into action. A near perfect example of an individual who made effective use of this process is Winston Churchill. However, shortly after the completion of World War II, Churchill lost his bid to continue as Great Britain's Prime Minister, illustrating the situational nature of leadership. A somewhat different example of the effects of communication is provided by Lincoln's Gettysburg Address. Delivered to a largely unreceptive audience, it has provided a great deal of guidance and direction for many persons in succeeding generations. Many facets of the communications process will be discussed in this lesson. Of particular interest will be the problems we share as individuals and vocational educators.

The line in the song "Poor Jud" from the musical Oklahoma, where Jud is described as loving everything and everybody - but he never let on, illustrates a communications problem common to many of us in vocational education. Poor Jud just couldn't bring himself to provide the feedback that would allow others to know how he felt. Providing others with information and feedback is one of the most critical and important tasks confronting vocational educators in the classroom, in administration and as professionals at the community, state and national levels. The information-feedback process is essentially one of communication. As such, the process can be greatly improved if we ask ourselves if we are providing the information and feedback that we would like to receive, were we in another person's place?

There are several assumptions that provide a foundation on which communications can be established. First, nearly everyone would like to perform well at whatever job they are doing. Generally, anything that contributes to the attainment of that goal, such as better communication with superiors, is well received. Information is needed to make good decisions. Second, few of us like to have our work criticised, but we would prefer criticism to being ignored. We would like to know where we stand before the day of reckoning comes and the chance for a solid foot hold in the organization has disappeared.

Lesson Five (Continued)

Finally, praise (one form of feedback) is free and always welcome. However, it only has meaning and value when it is earned and deserved. To pass it out indiscriminately weakens its motivational effect. It is only through free and open communications that we can provide the information, feedback and other expressions of concern and recognition that encourage the regular and accurate two-way dialogue that is essential to the effective functioning of any organization.

The need for communication skill among vocational educators goes beyond the mere sending and receiving of information and feedback. Vocational educators, particularly at the classroom level, must be able to communicate through words and actions the cognitive, affective and psychomotor components of their occupational specialties. Technological advances in almost all phases of the world of work have made this task more difficult and complex. Concomitantly, vocational education leaders will find the task of coordinating the efforts of persons across the occupational areas to be of increasing difficulty as a direct result of the trend towards specialization. Open and effective lines of communication are essential for the successful performance of the leadership function.

Most vocational educators have some facility with communication because it is one of the criteria used in the hiring procedure. Communication skill, like other skills, can be improved with practice, a fact that ought not go unnoticed by persons working in a highly "skill-practice oriented" profession. Vocational educators can improve their communications capability by increasing the number of channels through which they communicate and by increasing their facility with the modes of communication they are currently using.

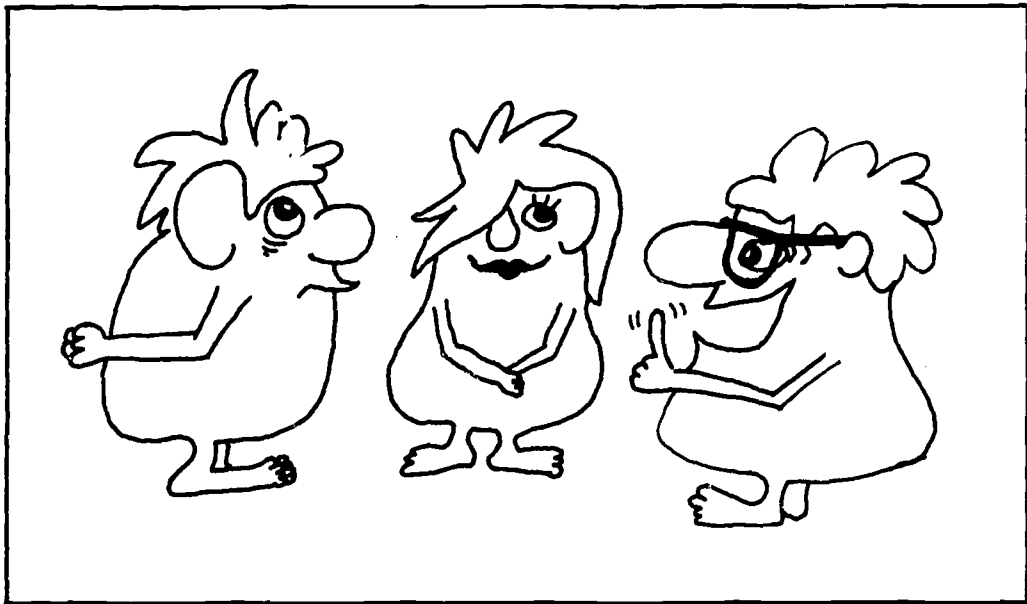
Reading Assignment:

Cribbin: Chapter 10

Developmental Exercises: Using the cassette recording tape provided for this lesson, record your responses to all the items below. Please confine your total response to this lesson to fifteen minutes or less. Up to fifteen minutes will be used to record the instructor's response that will be returned to you on the same tape.

1. Carefully analyze the cartoon on the next page and describe, in your own words, what you think it illustrates in regard to the communication process. Include what you believe to be the involvement of each character in this particular situation.
2. Have someone else complete item one above, but do not explain the purpose of the lesson or cartoon to them. Do not record their response, but do describe the position of the person (teacher in same area, spouse, etc.) and briefly critique (on tape) the similarities and differences between your response and theirs. Now try the same approach with another person, only explain the purpose of the exercise to them. Compare the response of this individual with that of the other person and with your own response.

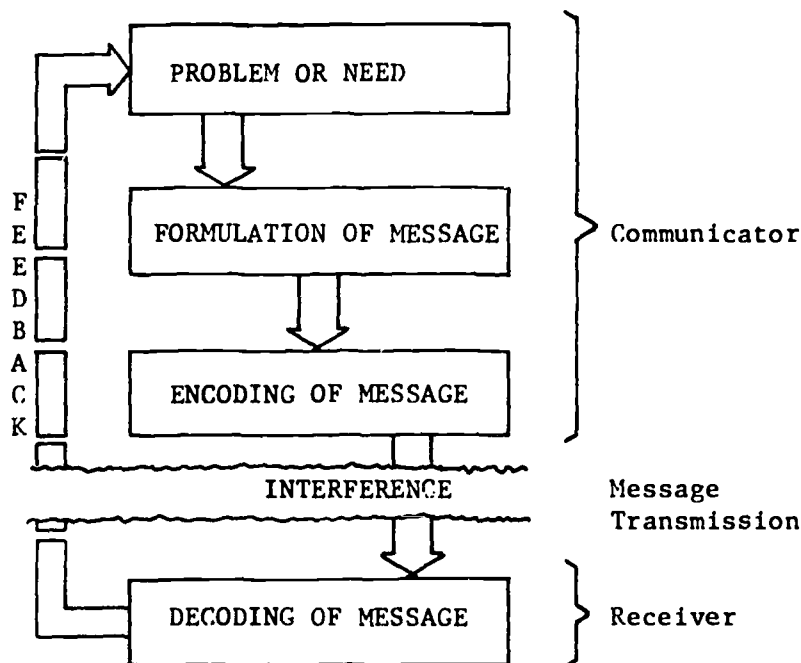
3. Identify and describe the major strengths and weaknesses of each of the following channels or modes of communication: speaking, writing, drawing and gestures.
4. The reading notes contain a diagram of a communications system. One part of the system is interference. Describe three potential sources of interference in the communications network of the vocational program with which you are associated.
5. Is the problem of communicating significant enough for you that it ought to be considered in your one-year and five-year plans for personal growth and development? Explain.



Reading NotesChapter 10: Cooperating Through Communicating

Introduction: If vocational educators are to influence the groups with which they must work they will need to be able to communicate effectively. Technological progress has increased our capability to communicate, but has not solved the basic problems of communications which are human in origin. Consequently, few organizations, vocational education included, have communication networks with which they are satisfied.

Communication: The mechanical process: The diagram below is a fairly typical representation of the elements of the communication process.



Some of the ways that problems are introduced into the communication process are; by permitting a high percentage of "half-baked" ideas or problems to enter the system (GIGO: garbage in, garbage out), allowing poorly formulated messages to pass through the system, using inappropriate grammar in the encoding step, selecting a poor channel for transmission of the message or using an overloaded channel (interference), sending messages beyond the receiver's capability to interpret (decode), and failing to offer solicit, or correctly understand feedback. The fact

that communication is a skill that improves with practice can be appreciated by vocational educators.

Communications - The human process: The amount of time spent by vocational educators in communicating is probably comparable to that spent by managers (approximately 80%). Mastery of this process is essential. Viewing communications in terms of the following transactions will be helpful in understanding the process:

- A. Human: communication is a form of influence. Two-way communication implies that influence and information will also be two-way. Both sender and receiver hear, see and send subjectively and selectively, so that channels of communication can be used both to encourage and to restrict information flow. Further, all communication is based on premises, assumptions, attitudes and expectations that are often hidden, but place limits on the process. Experience in communicating and with the parties in a communications network should improve information flow.
- B. Intellectual: communication takes place for the purpose of transmitting information, ideas or data. The following suggestions indicate ways that vocational educators can increase the clarity and comprehension of their communications:
 - 1. Temper observation with judgement. It is reasonable to assume that an examination of the data in any situation will serve as a check on less precise observation.
 - 2. Communication is a process of intelligent discrimination. An effective communicator knows what ought to be transmitted, how it ought to be transmitted, when to be aggressive, when to be cautious and when to consider or allow alternatives. Communication between vocational education leaders and leaders in other areas is enhanced when the similarities and differences in the problems confronting each are recognized.
 - 3. Words, because of their multiple meanings, are uncertain vehicles for the communication of ideas. Words become a much more precise means of communicating when combined with other words and gestures and are placed in a context that can be under-

stood by the intended receiver. This is one of the most important skills that can be developed by vocational educators.

4. Everyone has their reasons for entering into or not entering into communication with some other person. Attempting to understand the other person's motives, as well as your own, will facilitate genuine communication.
 5. Communication, once established, is a continuous process with messages serving as links in the chain rather than as ends in themselves.
- C. Psychological: Communication is any form of interaction; words, expressions, body movements and silence. The objective of communication is to obtain the desired impact. Therefore:
1. Communications should contain as much value as possible for the other person; people are self-centered. The inherent and readily observable value of vocational education makes communications with parents, students and community members much easier to establish.
 2. Messages are received according to the mode of the receiver, not according to what is said or done. Technical jargon and occupational buzz words may contribute little to understanding and communication outside (or even inside) the technical group.
 3. Nowhere is the meaning of a message and the intentions of the communicator clearer than in the manner in which the message is presented.
- D. Environmental: Technological advances in communications have caused as many or more problems than they have solved. Because of the large volume of messages, it is now possible to ignore many of them selectively. The problem is not in the technology of communications, but in making people aware of how to communicate. Following are some guidelines:
1. Select the channel that will give the best results.
 2. Don't overload a channel. Variations in the style of the message and the channel used for its transmission create greater attention on the part of the receiver.
 3. Structure groups to allow a free flow of information.

4. The major part of every message is never actually present in the message itself, but must be inferred. Be precise enough to insure correct inferences.
5. Communications within any organization are restricted by company policy, tradition and authority structure. Complex organizations are composed of subsystems that must communicate if their efforts are to be integrated. The organizational structure must allow for such communications.

Comment: Communication is an inexact science, particularly when one is unfamiliar with the language being used to formulate messages. Most vocational educators are teaching, coordinating or administering programs that seem strange to most "outsiders"; e.g., nonvocational students, teachers and administrators. Very often messages that are clear to vocational educators are a source of confusion to others. An awareness of this problem is a necessary first step towards a solution.

Manager-leader's strategy: Communication is a transaction where the sender has control of only half of the process. The crucial half is controlled by the receiver. The self image of the communicator and the image he has of the receiver must be accurate. Minimization of both the social and psychological distance between the parties engaged in communications shortens the "distance" a message must travel before it is received. The vocational educator must be certain to translate his message into a meaningful and effective form which is acceptable to the receiver.

The art of listening: The speaker in any group is the leader of the group while he is talking (and they are listening). Abuse of such leadership leads to marginal or evaluative listening in which one attempts to hear only enough to dismiss or put down the speaker. Projective listening requires that the listener attempt to put himself in the speaker's place. Here are some suggestions:

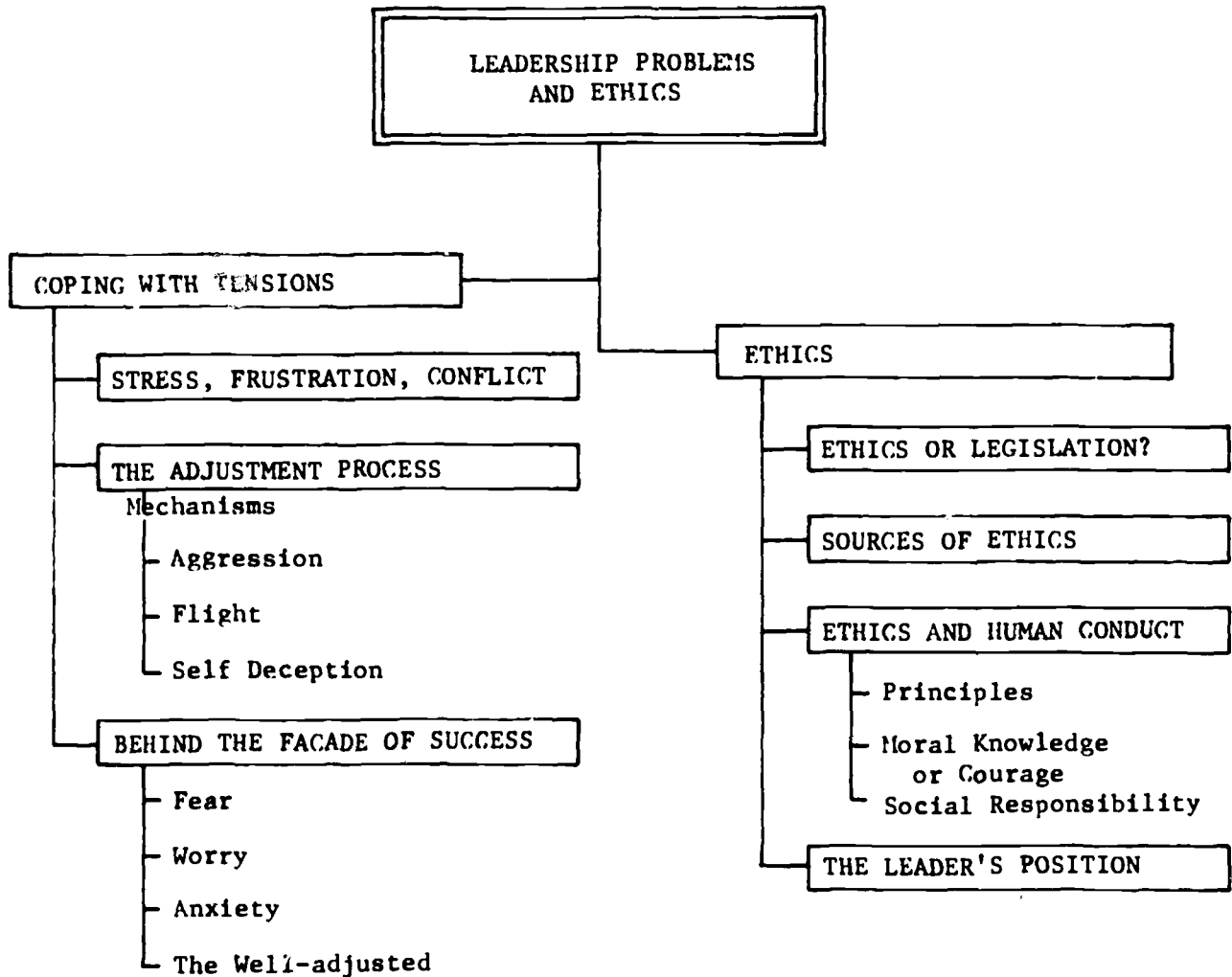
1. Pay complete attention and give frequent reassurances that you are listening. It requires discipline to keep from interrupting and making people feel inadequate or inferior.

2. Listen for the real message. Often silence, omissions and pauses are the message.
3. Listen prudently so that your time is not wasted. People will often abuse the willing listener.
4. Listen to learn.

Comment: A frequent complaint by vocational educators is that no one wants to listen to us. A question could be raised regarding our willingness to listen to others. Listening to someone else places an obligation on them to reciprocate.

The art of asking questions: A well phrased question helps the speaker continue in an appropriate direction. Questions can be of the nondirective type (requires more than a yes or no) or simply a rephrase of the content indicating agreement or understanding. Questions should be formulated to elicit the information you are after (understanding, rationale, feedback, or follow-up). The important factor in the effective use of questions as a communications technique is to ask the right person the right question at the right time in the right way!!! As educators, we very often use exactly the opposite procedure in the classroom and outside it.

LESSON SIX



LESSON SIX

Special materials: None

Objectives: Upon completion of this lesson you should be able to:

- ...recommend several strategies for dealing with a given tension producing situation
- ...identify several alternative ethical positions on a given issue
- ...describe, in case study form, an ethical situation confronting vocational educators
- ...evaluate your ethical stand in a given situation

Overview:

Vocational education leaders are subject to the same types of stress and tension that confront other vocational educators. Often, because of the nature of leadership, the pressures and temptations are greater for those who lead. Most issues confronting vocational educators, if carefully analyzed, have moral and ethical overtones and result in some form of tension. This lesson represents a change of pace from previous lessons, where leadership was bisected, dissected and otherwise analyzed. One goal of this lesson is to place vocational education leadership in a humane perspective.

The reactions of those who lead to the pressures that are placed on them reflect, in part, the state of their system of ethics at that point in time. The most difficult, tension arousing situations confronting vocational education leaders often arise when they are forced, for whatever reason, to take a course of action that is inconsistent with their beliefs. This would not be a problem if every decision to be made were based on alternatives that could be considered good, Better, BEST. However, the choices occasionally are bad, Worst and TERRIBLE! In nearly every situation some solutions, bad as they may be, are to be preferred over the alternatives. The leader's code of ethics serves as a guide in selecting a course of action from among the alternatives in a given situation.

An important issue that must be dealt with in this lesson is the effect that unethical or unprofessional actions have on an individual's leadership role in vocational education. We have all eaten in restaurants where the surroundings were immaculate, the personnel neat and the atmosphere generally wholesome. Then, upon picking up a fork with which to devour an appetizing meal, we discover bits of dried egg yolk between the prongs. This one indiscretion on the part of the restaurant makes us uneasy about everything they have attempted to do for us. Within the education profession, even a small breach of ethical conduct can cast a shadow over an entire life's work. Obviously there are differences in the level of tolerance that must be exceeded before various groups and individuals consider

a given act "unprofessional" or "unethical." In the restaurant example, some persons would not feel uneasy with their meal until they found a hair in their barbecue, still others would remain tolerant until they discovered a live fly in their soup.

The amount of ethical "freedom" permitted leaders is usually less than that which is allowed members of the group being led. Within a profession such as ours, the standards of conduct are already high, so ethical differences are small between practitioners, regardless of position. Consequently, even small deviations from acceptable standards can eliminate an individual, who might otherwise be well qualified, from consideration for a leadership role. Regardless of the personal standards of group members, they want to be led by someone whose standards are higher.

While it is difficult to set limits on what constitutes ethical-professional behavior in a given situation, at least one general principle can be identified. An individual's code of ethics represents a set of expectations that he has for his own behavior and for the behavior of others. The leaders of any group are those individuals who have leadership ability and whose conduct meets or exceeds the expectations of the group. Severe conflict can result in any organization when a person is placed in a position where leadership is expected, but he or she does not measure up to the standards established by the group as appropriate to that position. Administrators of this type create an uneasiness that is difficult for the persons involved to understand.

There are no "pat" answers to the ethical questions that confront us as vocational educators and leaders. The material on coping with tension which is a part of this lesson will provide an excellent frame of reference for analyzing the effects of ethical actions.

Reading Assignment:

Cribbin: Chapters 12 and 13.

Developmental Exercises:

1. Read each of the following case studies dealing with problems that often confront vocational educators. Develop a response to one case study in Part A and one in Part B. In your response to Part A you should briefly summarize (in your own words) what you believe to be the problem, then identify the possible courses of action. For the response to Part B, identify several possible ethical stances on the issue under consideration, then identify the one with which you would be most comfortable. Explain why you selected that particular ethical stance. If ethical problems create tensions in some people but not in others, what does this suggest to you? Under what conditions could tension lead to unethical conduct?

Part A: Tension

Case Study I:

Central Community College (CCC) is to serve as host for the Annual Tri-State Conference on Vocational and Technical Education. The President of CCC has appointed Mr. Reinhart and Mr. Doane to serve as co-chairmen of this large and prestigious affair. However, shortly before the conference is to start, Mr. Reinhart reports to the President that plans are behind schedule and that he and Mr. Doane are unable to get together to get things rolling.

Mr. Doane is a very talented, but outspoken, critical and domineering individual. Most persons, after getting to know him, are able to tolerate his undesirable characteristics out of respect for his capabilities as a vocational educator. Mr. Reinhart is a quiet, sincere and sensitive individual with great determination and drive. Although he keeps to himself, he has a reputation for being supportive of others and being competent and reliable in his professional activities.

There has been no obvious problems between the two until they had been partners in a bridge game about a month ago. Since that evening they have barely spoken to each other. The President has asked you to suggest some possible strategies that he might use in dealing with this situation.

Case Study II:

Mrs. Schwing has been the Supervisor of Cooperative Education Teachers in a large suburban area vocational school for less than six months. Although she has had some difficulties in adjusting to her new position, her task has not been made easier by Mrs. Oberhed, who has undermined many of Mrs. Schwing's efforts. In recent weeks it has become clear that Mrs. Oberhed is "after" the supervisor's position. She has been with the school for a number of years and has a fine record as a teacher. She is a hard working, aggressive individual, but occasionally criticizes others sharply and publicly. Being passed over when Mrs. Schwing was given the supervisor's position has been a major disappointment for her.

Mrs. Schwing has come to you for advice on how to handle this situation. Suggest several courses of action open to her.

Part B: Ethics

Case Study III:

Mrs. Nelson is a dedicated young teacher in the fashion design area. Until this year, she worked hard to keep her courses current, to main-

tain rapport with students, and to remain abreast of the profession. This, coupled with her family responsibilities, left little time for the advanced study required by state law. Since the deadline for completing a specified number of advanced credits was rapidly approaching she enrolled in several university courses, without any reduction in her responsibilities in the other areas. Consequently her performance as a teacher has been less than satisfactory, tension has developed in her family life and all professional activities have ceased. Her performance as a student is satisfactory, however.

Case Study IV:

Mr. Elwood works as a regional director for the State Vocational Education Department. The state reimburses Mr. Elwood's travel expenses up to a fixed level. Most of the motels and hotels in the state will furnish rooms at state rates if requested. Occasionally, due to the unavailability of rooms at the state rate, Mr. Elwood is forced to stay in a motel or hotel that charges above state rates. Rather than paying the difference out of his own pocket, Mr. Elwood adds fictitious parking fees, taxi fares and other tolls (none of which require supporting receipts if the amount is under \$5.00) to cover the added expense.

2. Develop a hypothetical case study of your own that deals with tension or ethics (or both) to which you would like the instructor to react. If it has a basis in real life, be sure to use fictitious names and disguise it so that individuals cannot be identified.
3. Cribbin (p. 231; "He can give an example") poses a number of questions that should help leaders determine the ethical implications of their actions in a given situation. Apply these questions, modified to meet this assignment, to your response to item one, Part B (no fair making changes in your response at this point in the lesson!) Would you now make changes in your original response? Explain.

Reading Notes

Chapter 12: Coping with tensions

Introduction: Leaders experience anxiety, have faults and display other human weaknesses. Individuals should understand and be able to cope with their own major problems and limitations before they attempt to lead others.

Problems of stress: Goals facilitate order amid turbulence. Stress is a reaction to obstacles that interfere with goal achievement. Barriers to the attainment of the goals we set for ourselves or our programs within vocational education create stress. Small amounts of stress can be constructive (motivating), but overwhelming stress can be disabling.

Frustration and conflict: External barriers to goal attainment create frustration. Conflict results from opposing internal drives. The two usually occur in combination. Vocational educators are generally adept at handling frustration because alternatives can be found if one is imaginative and enterprising. Conflict, due to the internal unrest, is more difficult to live with. Conflict can be classified as follows:

1. Approach - approach: An individual seeks two goals which may be in conflict, such as a vocational director who wishes to identify with both administration and teachers on all issues.
2. Avoidance - avoidance: An individual may want to avoid all the alternatives in a given situation, such as recommending someone for appointment to a vacant position in vocational education when your superior's marginally qualified brother-in-law has applied.
3. Approach - avoidance: The feeling that vocational educators have when offered a much higher paying position, but in an undesirable location.

The adjustment process: When barriers are encountered, leaders attempt to find paths around them. Solutions must be based on a realistic appraisal of the problem, should be economical and must be personally, socially and ethically acceptable. Following are several common adjustment mechanisms: 1) aggression, 2) flight

and 3) self-deception. Occasionally, all vocational educators, including vocational education leaders, use some variation of each of these mechanisms. Over-reliance or addiction to these mechanisms often results in a failure to adjust properly to a given situation. An understanding leader can help such individuals find more effective and acceptable means for goal attainment through the adjustment process. A group of understanding subordinates can be of similar assistance in helping a leader to adjust.

Behind the facade of success: All individuals throughout the ranks of vocational education are subjected to many conflicting pressures; e.g., to be aggressive but compassionate, and competitive yet cooperative. Success comes only to those who are able to cope with fear, worry and anxiety. Fear results from some present or perceived threat. Often, the absence of fear in a given situation can be considered irrational. Worry is probably the greatest tension inducer in vocational educators. It results from concern over some future threat. Coping with fear and worry requires the individual to admit their presence and to attempt to determine their causes. Actions to reduce their effect on the individual should be based on rationality, not emotions. Anxiety (a mild state of worry) is only debilitating if prolonged. When prolonged, it is a major source of neurotic behavior.

The well-adjusted leader: Vocational education leaders must be objective, aware of their personal strengths and weaknesses, and have a sense of who they are and what their life and career is all about.

Chapter 13: Ethics

Introduction: Various ethical stances have been identified; e.g., pragmatism, relativism, skepticism and others. Education, when listed with six other factors, was rated by managers as having the lowest influence on their moral behavior. This raises an interesting question about the effectiveness of much of vocational education as an ethical influence on vocational students.

Considering the options: Ethics are taken for granted until some minimum moral standard is violated. Legislation is a substitute for or a supplement to (depending on your orientation) society's moral code. Neither education nor business and industry can operate strictly on the basis of a legal system or on the basis of a moral system. A balance between the two is essential. Because vocational education is concerned with business and industry and with education, vocational educators must be able to reconcile the ethical and legal differences of these

three institutions. Above all, the individual vocational educator must maintain congruence between his actions and his convictions.

Possible sources of ethics: The science of ethics involves the study and evaluation of the rightness or wrongness of voluntary human acts. The theories that have been developed are generally incomplete and are largely oriented towards the past. They can be helpful, however, in helping us to develop a personal code of ethics. The major source of ethical guidelines for vocational educators is the group of principles that appear to govern the conduct of all educators. A second major source is the body of ethics which has been developed by employers and employees in the teacher's occupational specialty. The government, religion and law can and do influence the ethical standards of vocational educators. A good starting point for analyzing one's own code of ethics is to recognize that man the world over is rational, social, self-determining and conscionable. The tendency for individuals to be aware of what is their due, while being unaware of their duty is a major source of ethical problems.

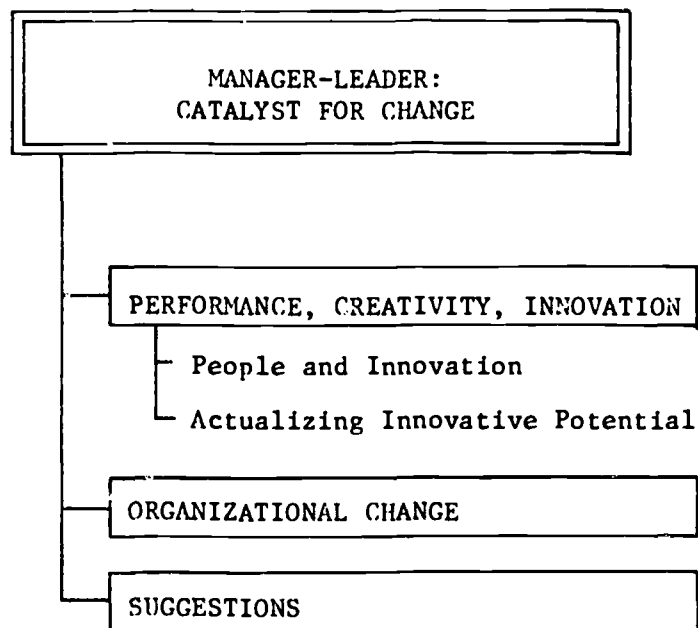
Ethics and human conduct: The principle that man is made to do good and avoid evil is accepted in every culture. Education helps man clarify what is good and what is evil and encourages him to develop a commitment to the good. Men of goodwill can reach some agreement on complex issues, even though total agreement is not possible. Finally, men of goodwill, given the same information on a complex issue, will draw somewhat different conclusions. The divergent perspectives that characterize the members of the various occupational areas within the vocational education profession insure that differences of opinion will surface on occasions.

Moral knowledge or moral courage? Having the courage required by our convictions is often difficult! Educators and other professionals are and will continue to be expected to maintain higher moral standards than is required of the average individual in society. It is clear that a very large majority of all vocational educators consciously subscribe to high ethical standards in their professional dealings. Nowhere is this clearer than in the example they provide for their students and for others.

Problems of social responsibility: Vocational education has an important part to play in America's struggle for increased maturity in the management of her lands, resources and population. Career education provides a model that calls for the closer coordination of all elements of education and a better integration of education and society. Other institutions in society are currently re-evaluating their self-centered objectives and are supplementing or replacing them with goals that clearly indicate their willingness to contribute to a better society.

The vocational education leader must develop a code of ethics that permits him or her to adapt to the changing needs of society, while maintaining high personal and professional standards. These priorities must enable the leader to act consistently in a time of turmoil and change.

LESSON SEVEN



LESSON SEVEN

Special Materials: The State Plan for Vocational Education for your state

The Local Plan for vocational Education for your institution's program*

Objectives: Upon completion of this lesson you should be able to:

- ...describe one significant change that will be occurring in your state in the next five years.
- ...identify three strategies that could be used to initiate change at the national, state or local level.
- ...evaluate the contribution that the attainment of your personal one-year and five-year professional development plans make to the goals established in the state and local plans for the system in which you work.
- ...evaluate the contribution that experience in your current or projected position will make to your personal one-year and five-year professional development plans.

Overview:

Change is a way of life in modern society. Almost every element of society is caught up in the process as a source of pressure for change, as an object of the pressure for change, or both. In the previous lesson it was stated that every society has sought to do "good" and avoid "evil." Modern society tends to equate change with progress. Most elements in society hold progress to be "good." Conversely, anything that interferes with progress is considered to be "evil." Therefore, anything that interferes with change tends to be considered "evil." This type of logic has caused many individuals and groups in society to become obsessed with the process of change, rather than with the goals of change. Naturally, then, such an obsession causes change to become an end in itself, rather than a means to an end.

Change ought to result from a dissatisfaction with things as they are and from a notion as to how they might be made better. Even the best vocational education programs cannot retain their high rank long without change. A major current emphasis in education is on creativity. As Cribbin suggests in chapter 14, a more realistic program of change centers on innovation; i.e., small incremental improvements, rather than the great strides forward that are implied by creativity. In recent years, earmarked money has been available for limited numbers of innovative, exemplary programs of vocational education. Most of these programs claim to be innovative and therefore rely on minor, but steady changes.

* Optional for this lesson, but highly recommended.

Lesson Seven (Continued)

Leaders must be able to cope with peer pressure and organizational constraints in dealing with change. It is generally easier to conduct business as usual, as opposed to instituting change, which requires effort and readjustment. Organizations and peers are often unwilling to make adjustments and thus they resist change, insuring its failure before it has had a real chance to succeed. An alternative situation is where the pressure is for change, Change, CHANGE! In this environment, no one gets a chance to become comfortable with anything. Under such a system, there is no commitment to the development of a given idea or program, only to their replacement with another idea or program that is more "creative." Somewhere between these two extremes is a happy medium that is suitable for the types of programs which characterize real progress in vocational education.

One of the major assumptions upon which this lesson and the entire course is based is that beneficial change in vocational education is both necessary and desirable. Change is necessary because the sectors of society that are the most directly served by vocational education have been expanding and changing. When viewed from a local perspective, change in vocational education may appear to be confined simply to the addition of one or two new "areas" in the local program and to several isolated revisions which modernize some of the existing program areas. Generally, changes on this level are closely related to changes in personnel, to changes in the composition and needs of the student population being served or to changes in the local community.

When viewed from a state-wide or national perspective, vocational education ought to appear more dynamic and more responsive than if it were viewed at the local level. This is because changes at the state and national level represent the cumulative effect of all the small incremental changes that have taken place at the local program and classroom levels. In fact, however, changes at the national level, and at most state levels seem to be less than dynamic. This reflects the fact that in many local programs little or no change is occurring, and in others some of the changes that have been made are counter-productive. If either of these situations exists in your locality, we hope that the effects of this course will, themselves, represent beneficial change.

In order that change at the state and national levels be orderly and in an appropriate direction, mechanisms have developed to shape the types of changes that are made at each level of vocational education. The national plan for vocational education, in the form of legislation and administrative rules, sets the limits within which the states must operate, if they are to receive federal funds for their efforts. Within this broad framework, each state develops a state plan for the administration of its vocational education programs. The efforts of certain of the programs in each state are funded on the basis of their contribution to the national goals and priorities that have been established, while others are funded on the basis of need for the programs. Administrators of local programs within a state work with their teachers to prepare a plan, showing how their program will contribute to the plan for the state and, thus, to the national plan.

It is clear that planning does take place at all levels of vocational education. The personal one-year and five-year plans for professional growth

and development, that were a part of lesson one, attempted to extend this process to individuals within vocational education. Beneficial change within vocational education can occur at all levels; i.e., national, state, local and individual. Pressure for change can be exerted at each level, or by each level on the other levels of vocational education. The pressure for change from within, or on, any level of vocational education requires leadership, and leadership requires the support of others. Even the most elementary changes in procedures at the classroom level very often require the approval of a department chairman, supervisor or program director.

Beneficial change in vocational education is desirable. There is little question that education has improved its understanding of students, of the learning process and of teaching methodology. Business and industry have made dramatic changes in their procedures as well. It is imperative that vocational education reflect these improvements, if it is to serve the educational needs of individuals and society in the most effective manner. The search for a better way is a continuous process, and ought to involve all vocational educators.

Reading Assignment:

Cribbin: Chapter 14

State Plan: The section on "Annual and Long-Range Goals for the State."

Local Plan: The section on "Annual and Long-Range Goals for the Local Program."

NOTE: The use of the local plan in this lesson is optional, but highly recommended.

Developmental Exercises:

1. Identify what you believe to be the most significant change that will be taking place in vocational education in your state in the next five years. How will your particular vocational education program, and you as an individual be contributing to this change?
2. Identify three strategies that you might use in pressing for change of the plans at the national, state and/or local level. You may slant all three strategies towards a single level or mix levels in anyway you like.
3. How might the one-year and five-year personal plans you developed in lesson one be made into an extension of the national, state and local plans? Would this be advisable? Why and why not?
4. Identify two ways in which attaining the goals set forth in your personal plans for professional growth and development will contribute to the attainment of the goals established in the state or local plans for vocational education with which you are associated.

Lesson Seven (Continued)

5. Assume that the goals of your local one and five year plan will be achieved. Identify two ways in which the changed institutional setting will contribute to the attainment of the goals specified in your one and five year personal development plan. (Use state plan goals if you have been unable to study local goals).
6. Briefly comment on the usefulness of the state and local plans in completing this assignment.

Reading NotesChapter 14: The Manager-Leader: Catalyst for Change

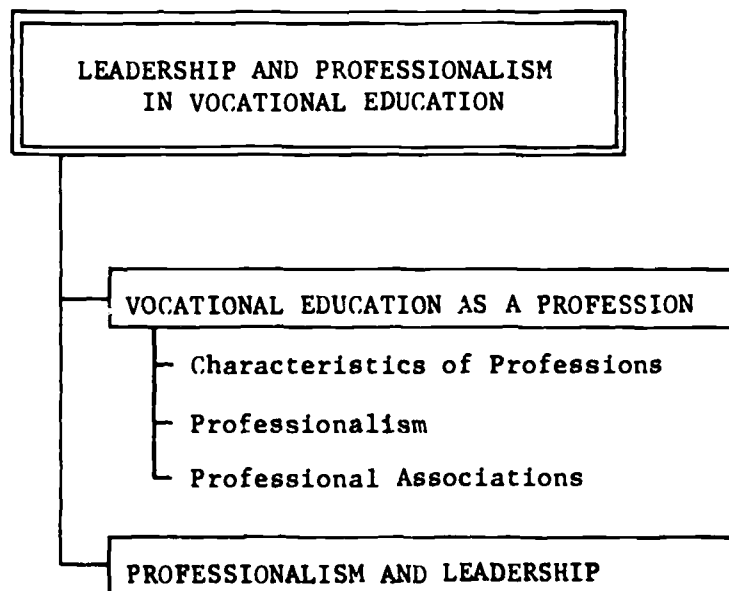
Introduction: Future programs of vocational education will differ greatly from those of the past, and will be somewhat different from those of the present. Vocational education leadership must look to the future and keep pace with change.

Performance, creativity and innovation: Creativity has been a major focus in education in the recent past. Creativity is the ability to develop brilliant ideas, or make major breakthroughs. In contrast, innovation is an act of small incremental improvement. The aim of both is to provide newer, better solutions to old problems. Within vocational education we must continue to be dissatisfied with the good enough, and must want to make things better. While creativity is a worthwhile aim, innovation is usually a much more realistic approach to the needed improvements in vocational education. Innovative vocational education programs are most often found where the philosophy and environment are supportive, and where improvement is encouraged and rewarded. A simple strategy for encouraging innovation in vocational education is to utilize the four resources all professionals in the field can make available; time, thought, talent and behavior. Innovation is more a matter of attitude than technique, however, training and encouragement are very helpful. Most vocational educators get great satisfaction from the challenge to contribute. Over-specialization and peer pressure can inhibit innovation. In many programs, the innovator is admired in theory only, in practice he is a pain in some part of the anatomy.

Organizational Change: Change is a way of life in most parts of vocational education. Vocational educators, like most professionals, have a primary allegiance to their career, with a secondary allegiance to a particular program in vocational education or to the profession itself. Effective management, leadership and change within vocational education must take personal priorities into account. Change will be more satisfying and effective if the goals of the profession, program and individual are in close alignment. Additionally, a change in one part of vocational education will influence and require adjustments in other sectors as well. Change should be orderly and planned.

Suggestions: Vocational educators should not rush heedlessly into change. Rather, they ought to consider the probability that a change will be beneficial, and if it is, structure the change so as to build on existing strengths within the current system. There is no substitute for careful planning. It is essential that changes be based on predetermined goals. The involvement, acceptance and commitment of individuals at all stages in the process is an essential means of obtaining support for change. In planning for change, vocational education leaders ought to anticipate and plan for both rational and irrational resistance. They ought to be prepared with alternative strategies in the event that a particular course of action is blocked. The process of change should be monitored and evaluated closely, providing enough time for a given change to prove itself. Effective leaders should attempt to think of the "one thing more."

LESSON EIGHT



LESSON EIGHT

Special Materials: The November 1971 and October 1972 issues of the American Vocational Journal.

Objectives: Upon the completion of this lesson you should be able to:

- ...identify three ways in which professionalism can contribute to the leadership in your vocational program.
- ...suggest several ways in which professionalism can be encouraged in your program.
- ...describe the professional and leadership responsibilities you have as a vocational educator.

Overview:

In this lesson, the concept of professionalism will be discussed, particularly as it relates to leadership. Although the two terms are treated in the vocational education literature as if they were virtually synonymous, focusing on their differences will be helpful in the understanding of the contributions that each can make to the more effective practice of vocational education. It should be noted that professionalism has been a part of this course from the very beginning, and the personal one-year and five-year plans for professional growth and involvement have been used throughout the course to interrelate these two concepts.

A great amount of effort has gone into the search for a set of characteristics that would distinguish professional occupations from non-professional occupations. Although most sets of criteria have unique features, there is general agreement that the following items are characteristic of most professions:

A profession is an occupation that...

...applies an intellectual, specialized body of knowledge that is well understood only by practitioners of that occupation.

...has a prolonged, specialized program of training to prepare individuals to practice the occupation.

...focuses on the service being rendered to society, rather than on the remuneration (usually in the form of a fee or salary) received.

...has a large degree of autonomy and control in the practice and governance of the occupation.

...has a strong association of practitioners which participates in the establishment of; 1) the regulations that govern the occupations, 2) the qualifications of practitioners, and 3) the code of ethics to which practitioners subscribe. Occupational associations are used to protect practitioners, to secure rights for and from the public (clients) and to raise or maintain the status of the occupation.

Upon careful examination of this list of criteria, it should be clear that few, if any, occupations would qualify as a profession if they were required rigorously to meet all of these characteristics. Education in general, and vocational education in particular, does not fare well on several of the criteria that were specified. Education has been considered a profession because of its close academic and content ties to other professions, and its role in the preparation of members of other professions. It has long been recognized that education falls short of the ideal of what a profession should be, but it is expected that it will achieve that ideal at some point in time. Vocational education should strive to keep pace with the professional developments in education, especially if it is to provide its share of the leadership that is needed in the career and community education movements.

It is abundantly clear, to even the not-so-careful observer, that not everyone in a given occupation has the same responsibilities or duties. This raises a question as to whether a person who is practicing a profession is necessarily to be considered a professional. In the Taft-Hartley Act of 1947, Congress attempted to define, by law, what constitutes a professional employee. According to their definition a professional employee is:

"(a) Any employee engaged in work (i) predominantly intellectual and varied in character as opposed to routine mental, manual, mechanical, or physical work; (ii) involving the consistent exercise of discretion and judgment in its performance; (iii) of such a character that the output produced or the result accomplished cannot be standardized in relation to a given period of time; (iv) requiring knowledge of an advanced type in a field of science or learning customarily acquired by a prolonged course of specialized intellectual instruction and study in an institution of higher learning or a hospital, as distinguished from a general academic education or from an apprenticeship or from training in the performance of routine mental, manual, or physical processes; or

(b) any employee, who (i) has completed the courses of specialized intellectual instruction and study described in clause (iv) of paragraph (a), and (ii) is performing related work under the supervision of a professional person to qualify himself to become a professional employee as defined in paragraph (a)."

The purpose for identifying professional employees in this Act was to provide them with separate rights in collective negotiation. It is clear from the criteria that the intention was to include only legal, medical, engineering and scientific and similar personnel. However, the intended distinctions are not clear-cut. In recent years, the National Labor Relations Board has tended to classify professional employees on the basis of the work they do, rather than on the basis of their individual preparation, background, or experience. Using the work that one does as the basis for determining an individual's professionalism raises some interesting issues. It means that some engineers are professionals and some are not, just as some vocational educators are professionals and some are not.

Although there is disagreement on the exact elements that must be present in an occupation for it to qualify as a profession, or for its practitioners to be considered professional employees, there is general agreement that a strong professional association of practitioners is essential. The usual role of the professional association is to pass upon the qualifications of individuals seeking membership, specify appropriate training and to protect practitioners from the incursions of other associations, the public or the government. Usually, a further central concern is to see that the "public interest" is protected and served. It is not difficult to see the benefits that can accrue to the members of a profession if their association achieves such control.

Aside from governance, professional associations serve a number of other useful functions. They encourage continuing study and the exchange of ideas, stimulate research, foster publications, act in an advisory capacity to private and public bodies, and expend great effort in the task of raising and maintaining the status of the occupation. Professional associations develop out of the professional consciousness of a few leaders in an occupation, and have as their major task the development of a professional awareness among other practitioners. A positive response on the part of the practitioner to this professional awareness is termed "professionalism."

Professionalism, goes beyond the mere performance of the responsibilities associated with a given position. Professionalism requires that the practitioner be committed to, and take pride in his occupation. One of the most frustrating problems confronting those who would lead in vocational education is the lack of pride and commitment that many of their colleagues (those they seek to lead), have to vocational education. Labeling such lack of commitment as "unprofessional" is an oversimplification, if not outright misinterpretation of the issue. Professionalism is not something that one practitioner has and another lacks. Rather, professionalism exists, in some degree, in all practitioners.

There are two principal ways of determining an individual's level of professionalism. First we can compare how the individual performs, on the criteria specified, with regard to other members of the same occupation. Using this measure, it is possible to identify individuals who fall short of minimum acceptable standards. One may, then either work to bring them up to an acceptable standard or expel them from the occupation (i.e., if professionalism is considered to be important to the occupation). A second way to measure professionalism is to compare typical individuals within one occupation to

typical individuals in some other occupation. Using this standard, vocational educators may be less professional than physicians, lawyers and scientists, but more professional than the practitioners in the occupations from which vocational educators usually are recruited.

Most vocational educators would agree that increased professionalism is a desirable goal for the profession. The question then becomes one of how to achieve such a goal. There is little question that the preservice and inservice preparation of vocational educators will need to focus more clearly on this issue. Too often in the past it has been assumed that new recruits knew what was expected of them professionally when they entered vocational education. The current concern over professionalism in vocational education is witness to the fact that this has been a faulty assumption. Certification and degree requirements are "clearly" spelled out, but do not generally include a realistic indoctrination in the professional responsibilities of the individual beyond his or her job assignment.

In fact, the emphasis in vocational education has encouraged practitioners to identify as closely as possible with individuals who are working in the occupation for which the vocational educator is preparing students. Maintaining a high degree of occupational currency and competence requires such ties, but it retards the identification of the individual with other educators and vocational educators. It has been noted that vocational educators who fail to maintain a strong occupational identity end up as coordinators, administrators, etc. Is this cause or effect? Or is it rather that those vocational educators who develop strong ties as well with other educators and vocational educators become administrators and coordinators, and in the process lose close ties with their former, nonteaching occupation?

It is at this point that leadership and professionalism merge. The types of activities outlined in this course as areas of concern for individuals interested in developing their leadership potential are all areas of professional concern as well. In fact, the differences between leadership and professionalism are subtle, but worth exploring. The most important difference is that leadership implies an activity in which an individual becomes involved, while professionalism speaks to the quality of an action. Linking the two terms together into professional leadership is in no way redundant, but speaks of a quality of leadership that is both desirable and necessary.

Another important difference between the two terms is that leadership is a response an individual makes in a given situation. On the one hand, as leadership has been defined in this course, a person who is playing a leadership role could be involved in the actual directing of the group, or simply could be providing support for those responsible for the leadership in that situation. On the other hand, professionalism would imply that an individual ought to become involved in situations and activities that are of concern to her or his profession, particularly as they relate to one's specific position in vocational education. Additionally, while an individual's leadership behavior may change from one situation to the next, professionalism is a constant across all situations since it is a quality or perspective which one carries into every phase of the occupation.

The qualities of professionalism and the potential for leadership exist in all vocational educators. Both represent resources that need to be tapped in greater amounts if vocational education is to achieve the worthwhile goals that it has established for itself.

Reading Assignment:

- Barlow, M. L., Professional Development in Vocational Teacher Education. American Vocational Journal, 1971, 48(8), 28-31.
- Barlow, M. L., Our Professional Heritage: The Challenge Hasn't Changed. American Vocational Journal, 1972, 47(7), 26-27.
- Evans, R. N., The Professionalism of AVA: Are We Running A Loose Ship? American Vocational Journal, 1972, 47(7), 22-23.
- Nichols, M., Who Will Walk The Second Mile: A Call for State Leadership. American Vocational Journal, 1972, 47(7), 24.
- Welsh, B. W., Camouflage and Professionalism Don't Mix: Observations from the Local Level. American Vocational Journal, 1972, 47(7), 25.

Developmental Exercises:

1. Identify three ways in which an increased emphasis on professionalism could contribute to the leadership of your vocational program.
2. Describe two professional responsibilities or obligations that you have that go beyond what usually is expected of a person in your position. How is leadership involved in these responsibilities?
3. Briefly describe what you believe to be the most important reasons why less than 25% of all vocational educators belong to the American Vocational Association. Should they be encouraged to join? Why or why not? Should every vocational educator belong to some professional organization other than AVA? Why or why not?
4. Make any revisions you deem appropriate in your personal one-year and five-year plans for professional growth and development and submit them with this lesson. Why did you make these revisions? Or, on what basis did you decide that none are needed at present?

NOTE: If you have not already made arrangements with your instructor for satisfying the final examination requirement, you may want to make your choice of options known to him at this time.

APPENDIX H
FINAL EXAMINATION RATING FORM

Final Examination

Name _____

Grading Summary

No. _____

Question Number

Response to the questions asked

a) Definitive answer	4	4	4	4	4	4
b) Indirect or partial answer	3	3	3	3	3	3
c) Answer does not address itself to the question asked	2	2	2	2	2	2

The understanding of the concept, as indicated by the response to the question is...

a) Well above average	7	7	7	7	7	7
b) Above average	6	6	6	6	6	6
c) Average	5	5	5	5	5	5
d) Below average	4	4	4	4	4	4
e) Well below average	3	3	3	3	3	3

Application of the concept

a) Well above average application	5	5	5	5	5	5
b) Above average application	4	4	4	4	4	4
c) Average application	3	3	3	3	3	3
d) Below average application	2	2	2	2	2	2
e) Well below average application	1	1	1	1	1	1

Overall evaluation of the examination

a) Well written, concise, clear	4
b) Incomplete or incomprehensible at times; but otherwise well done	3
c) Choppy, incomplete but communicates ideas to a limited extent	2
d) Examination responses are weak and incomprehensible	1

Examination Score _____

Examination Grade _____

Course Grade _____

APPENDIX I
FOLLOW-UP STUDY FORM

1. Cover Letter
2. Form

Printed on Correspondence Courses Office letterhead
University of Illinois
Champaign, Illinois

Dear Participant:

The purpose of this letter is to inform you of the current status of this project, and your position within it. Our records indicate that you are still enrolled in VOTEC x349, Leadership Development in Vocational Education. The nature of the funding for this project makes it impossible for us to pay for any instructional services after July 15, 1973. At that time, individuals who have not completed the course will have to pay the \$44 course fee to cover the cost of instruction. The following options are open to you:

1. Complete all eight lessons by July 15, 1973. If you have not begun submitting lessons as of the date of this letter, or have only submitted a few lessons, you will need to consider one of the following options.
2. You can pay the \$44 course fee and complete the course at your own pace. You have up to one year from the original date of enrollment in which to complete the course. I might add that this still represents a real educational bargain, due to the fact that you already have the instructional materials.
3. You may officially withdraw from the course.

I have included with this letter a form on which I would like you to indicate how you anticipate terminating your participation in this project. I would appreciate your filling out the questions that are on the form that you are to return. We will be able to award graduate credit to individuals who are eligible for such credit and who start submitting lessons prior to August 30, 1973 and complete within the one year time limit as outlined above.

I've appreciated the interest that you've shown in this project by submitting an enrollment form. Any additional comments or information that you could provide us regarding the materials that were sent you would be most helpful to us as we go through and revise this program. I look forward to hearing from you, and should you decide to continue your participation in this project, to working with you in the near future.

Sincerely,

Wayne N. Lockwood
EPDA Fellow
Vocational and Technical
Education

WNL:p:lb
Enclosure

Participant Status Form

VOTEC x349

Purpose of the form: By filling out this form and responding to the questions, you will be providing us with information that will be of assistance in improving this program and bringing this project its conclusion. Your interest in this project is greatly appreciated!

Please add your comments to any of the questions below if you desire to do so. Use the back of this sheet if necessary.

1. What was the basis of your decision to enroll in this course? (Circle any that apply)

- (a) The introductory material seemed attractive.
- (b) The price was right
- (c) I could use the credit:

- (i) for salary purposes.
- (ii) for certification purposes.
- (iii) for degree purposes
- (iv) other (describe).

- (d) I liked the idea of independent study.
- (e) Other.

2. Would you have more actively pursued this course had you been assured of graduate credit at the time of your enrollment? (Circle one)

Yes No Undecided I am not eligible for such credit

3. What do you see as the major factor in your not more actively taking advantage of this opportunity?

Please indicate how you would like to terminate your participation in this project. (Check one)

____ I will attempt to complete all the lessons by July 15, 1973.

____ I will pay the \$44 course fee and continue the course at my own pace (a fee slip has been included for your convenience).

____ I would like to officially withdraw from VOTEC x349.

Thank you for your cooperation!

VITA

Mr. Wayne Nelson Lockwood, Jr. was born in Fort Wayne, Indiana, November 1, 1941. He attended public elementary schools and graduated from Fort Wayne Central High School in 1959. In the fall of 1959, Mr. Lockwood entered Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana and graduated in June, 1964, with a Bachelor of Science in Industrial Education degree.

In June, 1964, Mr. Lockwood entered the Graduate School at Purdue University to begin work leading to a master's degree. The following fall, September, 1964, he accepted a one semester appointment as an Instructor in the Engineering Graphics Department of Purdue University. In January, 1965, he received an appointment in the Industrial Education Department of Purdue University as a Graduate Assistant. Mr. Lockwood spent the 1965-66 school year teaching industrial arts at Thomas Jefferson Junior High School in Valparaiso, Indiana. In September, 1966, he returned to the faculty of Purdue University, as an Instructor in the Engineering Graphics Department. In June, 1967, he completed the requirements for the Master of Science in Industrial Education degree.

In the fall of 1967, Mr. Lockwood accepted a position as an Assistant Professor II in Department of Industrial Education and Technology, Trenton State College, Trenton, New Jersey. During the two years spent in New Jersey he was appointed to the Board of Directors of the Delaware Valley Design and Drafting Council, was a participant in an NDEA Computer Graphics Institute at Illinois State University in the summer of 1968, and was Director of a Computer Graphics Institute at Trenton State College in the summer of 1969.

In September, 1969, Mr. Lockwood accepted an appointment to the faculty of the Industrial Technology Department at Illinois State University and has remained at that position except for a one year leave of absence, during which

he held an EPDA Fellowship in Vocational Education at the University of Illinois.